The Nation.

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The Week.

If one but stops to consider the beginnings of the peace movement in this country, this week's Peace Congress seems little short of the marvellous. With more than a thousand delegates from all over the country, it seems as if for once peace had become the fashion. That much of what we have heard this week is purely lip-service, may be admitted without detracting from the value of the gathering. Peace, like religion, is far too often something to be discussed in the abstract, to be praised to the skies—and then to be forsworn when the test of belief is at hand. We have but to go back nine years to remember how few were willing to be known in 1898 as peace men, to say nothing of making outspoken protest against manslaughter by the nation. From those who but half believe, the cause will still suffer as it has in the past. If this Congress means that the movement is hereafter to be placed on a business basis, there is additional cause for rejoicing. Like every other, the cause needs organization, and on a far larger scale than hitherto; it should have a definite plan of campaign, and it should be as unceasing in its activity as are the navy leagues to be found in various places—latterly in this country. These work for the instruments of war by day and by night. In Germany the league has raised hundreds of thousands of dollars to buy cruisers for the Government. The peace leaders ought to combat every effort to increase our armaments and our fighting forces. To Mr. Carnegie and the others who have brought about this Congress the thanks are due of all who believe in the brotherhood of man.

Senator Foraker burned his bridges behind him in his speech at Canton last week. Nominally, he addressed the local Board of Trade, but actually his words were intended, not merely for Ohio, but for the whole country. He appears as spokesman for that wing of the Republican party which President Roosevelt denounces as "reactionary," "opposed to my policies." We need not ask for a nice definition of these terms. Senator Foraker, indeed, protests that he has antagonized the President in only three matters: the form of the Statehood bill for Arizona and New Mexico, the Hepburn Railway Rate bill, and the treatment of the Brownsville affair. But however much Mr. Foraker may protest, his differences with President Roosevelt evidently go far deeper. He objects to the President's policy of assuming complete control of the party organization, and naming a successor. He asserts his right to enter the field without being branded as a traitor to Republicanism, and, indeed, to the flag itself. Mr. Foraker does not mince words:

> That the President of the United States should become personally engaged in a political contest to determine his successor is without precedent, unless it be the bad precedent set by Andrew Jackson as to Martin Van Buren.

This, then, is a challenge of the wisdom of the President in selecting a candidate and throwing the whole weight of the Administration for him. Many Republicans who do not admire Senator Foraker, and who think highly of Secretary Taft, entertain the gravest doubts as to the advisability of thrusting Secretary Taft forward as the continuer of the Roosevelt régime. That régime may be as beneficent as its most ardent supporters say it is; and yet we may not become enthusiastic over a man who is set before us as nothing but the image of another. For the sake of Secretary Taft himself, it would be well that the Administration should not pull wires for him too openly, and that the President should not be provoked into outspoken advocacy of his cause.

No one will find fault with Secretary Taft's plan for the restoration of the Cuban Republic, save those who have selfish motives. That there are many such is unfortunately true. Numbers of men with investments in Cuba are unwilling to take Andrew D. White's excellent advice to set up the Republic seventy times, if necessary, rather than make it a part of the United States, because the setting-up process would probably affect their pockets. In the cafés of Havana there is no more familiar talk than the gossip that the rich planters will finance a revolution every other year for the next twenty years, if need be, in order to compel this Government to remain in Cuba. This may be done—revolutions are sadly cheap in the island—but meanwhile the President and Secretary Taft are playing their part bravely and frankly. They reiterate that there has been no change in their views since they established the provisional government, and that Cuba must be turned over to the Cubans just as soon as possible. As the first step towards the essential tranquillity and stability, Secretary Taft urges the taking of a census as the basis of an honest vote, and he rightly refuses to permit either this census or the election of a President to be hurried. Some Cubans would like to have the new President take office on May 20, the natal day of the Republic; but sentiment must give way to care and deliberation in reconstruction.

Details of the new tariff *modus* with Germany are furnished from Washington. As authorized by Section 3 of the Dingley Act, the President will make a proclamation admitting German champagnes at reduced rates of duty, in return for a concession by Germany of her minimum tariff rates and a removal of the special restrictions on the importation of American bacon and dressed meats. This agreement has, of course, to receive the approval of the German Government, which will certainly not be had without violent protests from the Agrarians. Moreover, the agreement is, in any case, to run but for one year. Then it must be superseded by a broad treaty of commercial reciprocity which Secretary Root is to negotiate. This latter will require the consent of the Senate, and it is admitted that "present indications are by no means favorable" for ratification of any treaty touching the sacrosanct tariff. Yet the indomitable optimists of the State Department think that, by December, 1908, the "prospects for ratification" will be "brighter" than "present conditions seem to indicate." Can the Administration expect, not to say hope, that the standpatters will be routed at the polls next year?

The conviction of the Standard Oil Company for accepting railway rebates will be generally—and properly—accepted as proof of the charges made, not only in the press, but in official reports, that the company has profited largely by taking unfair advantage of its competitors. Into the ethics of the question we need not enter. It is evident that a common carrier, enjoying the franchises, the peculiar privileges, and the powers of a railway, is bound to treat all shippers alike. The company to which it grants a secret rate can crush all rivals. This has been the case with the Standard Oil. As Secretary (then Commissioner) Garfield said last May in his report on the subject:

> The Standard Oil Company has benefited enormously up almost to the present moment by secret rates, many of these secret rates being clearly unlawful. This benefit amounts to at least three-quarters of a million a year.

This statement was vehemently denied by the officers of the company and by their apologists—clergymen, college presidents, and editors of the religious press. The two vice-presidents of the company, H. H. Rogers and John D. Archbold, declared May 4, 1906:

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We say flatly that any assertion that the Standard Oil Company has been or is now knowingly engaged in practices which are unlawful is alike untruthful and unjust. . . . But all this aside [the question of Federal jurisdiction], there have been no secret rates nor unlawful discrimination in the interest of the Standard Oil Company.

The idea that these practices, so deliberately planned, so extensively applied, were carried on without the knowedge of the active heads of the company, is preposterous. We believe, however, that the Rev. Robert Stuart MacArthur and the other clerical defenders of the Standard Oil were deceived. They supposed that the fine protestations of morality uttered by Messrs. Rogers and Archbold were true. But the verdict of the Chicago jury on Saturday night, finding the company guilty on 1,462 separate counts, should open their eyes. In one set of counts the company received a rate of 7½ cents a hundred pounds when the published rate was 19½; in the other set the company paid 6 cents when the legal rate was 18. The jury brought in a verdict under which the company is liable for fines ranging from $1,462,000 to $29,240,000. No one will be sorry if the judge fixes the amount at a round five or ten millions. The only matter for regret is that the rich lawbreakers are not sent to the penitentiary.

The burning question, "What is whiskey?" having been adjudicated by so high an authority as the United States Attorney-General, less important products may ask for their day in court. But except the makers of what Mr. Bonaparte called "something better than whiskey"—water, neutral spirits, and flavoring extract—we have seen no cases so sad as those of the manufacturers who have suddenly discovered that the trade-mark law which they had regarded as a very bulwark of defence, leaves them in reality hopelessly vulnerable. It was not generally realized that "labels" included "trade-marks." For instance, a medicine-maker whose trade-mark promises "instant cure to sufferers" may have been protected by the courts for years against rivals who offered "immediate alleviation" or "instantaneous improvement"; the device showing the venerable Dr. Waldteufel in the act of discovering the precious compound, could be reproduced on no other medicine. But all this is nothing. The cold-blooded Department of Agriculture calmly observes that the medicine does not cure instantly and that there "never was no such person" as Dr. Waldteufel. The valuable trade-mark name "Electric Oil" is in jeopardy because there is nothing electric about the stuff. "Cure" is barred as the name of a preparation. The immemorial term "hair restorer" is threatened, because it cannot be depended on to restore hair. Even the various "cereal coffees" are in danger, because they are not coffee. This is a different matter from the unmasking of the New Jersey varieties of Roquefort cheese, Munich beer, and the like. But the *Trade-Mark Bulletin*, which enumerates a number of these cases in its current issue, adds that "there is to be derived from the law a considerable degree of protection for honest marks."

If we could not have a conviction of Thaw, the fact that seven jurymen stood out to the end for a verdict of murder in the first degree, is the next best thing. Decent people will be thankful to them for thus putting an end to the perilous nonsense imported into the trial. We shall hear no more of the assertion that a rich degenerate, touched with megalomania, can in New York kill a man in cold blood, even if that man be a libertine, and that then justice will have no terrors for him. It is refreshing to learn that the preposterous pleadings of Mr. Delmas had no effect upon the jury except to disgust them. Even those of them who voted for acquittal did so in the belief that Thaw was insane. Thus all the heroics about the "unwritten law," dangerous in any case, wildly absurd in the present one, went for nothing. At least seven men on the jury had heads clear enough, and a sense of obligation to society and to their oath firm enough, to prevent them from being deluded by all the mawkish sentiment and crafty play upon the passions introduced into the defence of Thaw. If we have not, unfortunately, a clear instance of the rigid application of the law of murder, without fear or favor, we are at least spared the absolute disregard of it, with the appalling inference that no wealthy man need fear the penalty of his crimes.

The National Academy of Design, in refusing election to thirty-three out of the thirty-six candidates proposed, has merely followed the way of all academies. It is not that the ins are jealous—at least consciously—of the rising outs. The *arrivés*, the men who have in the course of years reached fame and a secure position, naturally look with a certain skepticism upon the efforts of younger men with other methods. Each Academician will give intellectual assent to the proposition that there are nine and sixty ways of constructing tribal lays, and every single one of them is right; but when it comes to the practical application of this catholic theory, he hesitates. In his heart of hearts he feels that of all the nine and sixty ways but half a dozen are really praiseworthy, and of that half-dozen, one—his own—is eminently the best. This is merely to say that the Academician is a human being, with fallible judgment, and unable to detach himself from prejudices of time, place, and person. We could wish that men who have won such distinction as Ernest W. Lawson—to mention but a single name—had been welcomed to the Academy; but as Kenyon Cox remarked to a newspaper reporter, "In so large a body it is difficult to get the required two-thirds to agree upon any one man." That difficulty, we may add, is the very thing that always has been, and always will be, the standing reproach of academies, the thing that lessens their influence and casts doubt upon their authority.

Even in the *Figaro's* selections from the Montagnini papers, mostly pro-Church as they are, one document has been published which will be seized upon by the Anticlericals as a justification for their course. This is a letter from Cardinal Merry del Val to the Archbishop of Lyons, calling his attention to "the capital importance of the next political elections in France." It was no mere general warning and advice. Detailed suggestions how to proceed were given. Money was to be collected, as by the League of French Women, but the spending of it was to be entrusted to the Church authorities. Merry del Val was most specific:

> Your Eminence should persuade the ladies that it is a good thing to collect money, but it should be handed to your Eminence with every confidence, you promising them that you will employ it exclusively for electoral purposes in the manner that you may judge most prudent and most advantageous. Your Eminence will afterwards come to an agreement with M. Piou for the selection of candidates and the distribution of the money.

Now, this looks amazingly like what the Anticlericals have charged—that the Church, as such, was directly meddling in French politics. From that it was a short step to the inference that there was a clerical plot against the republic itself. We do not draw that inference; but it is easy to see what the effect of so compromising a letter would be upon an already suspicious and excited Anticlerical party in France.

The threatened strike of the Paris bakers has more than its surface significance. It is one step more in the campaign of intimidation that has been carried on by the Socialist labor elements from the very beginning of the Clemenceau Ministry, simultaneously with the Parliamentary warfare waged against the Cabinet by M. Jaurès. Between the two, the Moderate press is beginning to complain that the Socialists have made themselves masters of the Government. The Moderates point to the action of Minister of War Picquart in punishing a corps commander stationed at Nancy for remarks against Germany, but, about the same time, re-

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storing to the army a lieutenant who had been cashiered a year ago for declaring at a labor meeting that he would never obey his superior's orders to fire upon the "workmen." What better proof, is asked, can there be of the Government's complete subservience to the revolutionary unions and the fanatical "pacifists"? In fact, for all M. Clemenceau's resolution in moments of labor crises, it would appear that in the end he has yielded to the repeated demands of the Confederation of Labor under their militant chief, M. Griffuelhes. The great labor demonstration in Paris planned some months ago was forbidden, but a bill was enacted extending the right of public meeting to the widest limit. The electricians' strike was broken, but the strikers obtained pretty nearly all their demands. So now there is talk of the military bakers being used to replace any bakers that may strike, but such repressive action for the moment is likely to be followed by generous concessions.

In a series of studies of present-day Germany by the French journalist and traveller, Jules Huret, we come across an estimate of William II. from a point of view with which our own Andrew D. White has already made us familiar. With sympathetic appreciation M. Huret affords us a glimpse, not of the traditional mailed war-lord and compeller of battle clouds on the European horizon, but of a sagacious and self-controlled monarch who for nearly a score of years has been a powerful factor for Continental peace. There is danger of overcoloring this new representation of the Emperor as arbiter of peace, just as the older picture was greatly overdrawn. In reality, William II. is not, and cannot be, that absolute master of fate who may, without reckoning consequences, throw his legions across the Rhine or dispatch his cruisers on a dash for Dover. We speak glibly enough of hurling the splendid German army at this or that enemy; but an army, after all, is something more than a primitive javelin, and, however well it be disciplined, it needs more than the impetus of an Imperial arm to be propelled with effect. It needs a soul of its own; and because the European standing army is so inseparably a part of the nation, its animating principle in times of crisis must be something that animates the nation at large. It is almost absurd to contend that a German army would be as invincible in 1907, fighting over Morocco, as it was in 1870 fighting for national unity. The standing army, therefore, which rightly enough we regard as one of the crying evils of the European political system, has this to be said in its favor: that, from the very fact of its being an army fed by national levies, it affords an appreciable guarantee against wars waged for frivolous causes or at the instigation of a self-seeking faction. In Western Europe it is hard to imagine a great war breaking out unpreceded by an upheaval of national animosity on either side. It is Sir Ian Hamilton's opinion, given in the second volume of "A Staff Officer's Scrap-Book During the Russo-Japan War," that among the qualifications which go to make a good private soldier, the first is that he shall hate his enemy. "Each Japanese private entered into the war with burning feelings of personal anger." But just because it is becoming more and more difficult to make nations hate each other without grievous wrong, governments must hesitate to throw against each other armies whose heart may not be in the fighting.

The action of the Electoral Committee of the German Reichstag in unseating one of the Conservative Deputies, Herr Richthofen, because of interference in his behalf by Chancellor von Bülow, would indicate that the complaisance of the Government majority in the Reichstag does not go to the point of acquiescing in an aggression on Parliamentary privilege. Prince von Bülow had come to the aid of the Conservative candidate in a newspaper appeal to the members of all bourgeois parties to unite for the defeat of the Socialists. This the committee, by a vote of seven to six, decided was illegal. Evidently, the Liberal representatives on the committee voted against the Government on broad Constitutional grounds. The denial of the principle of Ministerial responsibility to Parliament must have as its correlative absolute Parliamentary immunity from interference by the Executive. That the German Government has not held fast to this appears not only from its open interference in the election, but from the recent Erzberger case, involving a restriction on Parliamentary freedom of speech. The disqualification of Herr Richthofen may indicate the precarious nature of the Government majority; in any case, the Reichstag is to be congratulated on its spirit of independence. The hardiest imagination can scarcely conceive the election of a New York Congressman being set aside because of an open letter addressed to him from the White House saying, "Your success is necessary to the safety of the country and to the interests of the Republican party."

The resignation of the Belgian Cabinet, which has been expected for some weeks, was announced on Friday. Gathering difficulties have finally brought about the downfall of the Smet de Naeyer Ministry, after it had held power since August 5, 1899. The specific measure on which the Government was defeated was the law fixing the hours of labor in mines, which was adopted last week by 94 votes to 32. The Catholic Right, or Government party, had been split for some time on the question of liberal labor legislation, and the Young Catholics, who recognized that only by such a programme could they retain their hold on the working classes as against the Socialists, united with the Opposition to overthrow the Government. But probably the Congo situation was chiefly instrumental in bringing about the fall of the Ministry. The need for a thorough reconstruction of the colonial régime has been felt throughout the country, and a Parliamentary Commission is now engaged on the task. King Leopold's attitude towards any reform tending to weaken his control has not changed, however. Hence the dilemma of the Cabinet. Finding it impossible to oppose the royal master whose interests he had served so long and so subserviently, and finding it equally impossible to resist public opinion, M. Smet de Naeyer chose to resign office. The foreign press speaks of a feeling of general unrest and dissatisfaction which pervades Belgian politics, and of which the colonial problem is the most definite cause. Certainly, politics have reached an unhealthy state when, as we learn from the dispatches, a Ministry, bent upon resigning, permits the discussion of a measure in the Chamber after a royal decree withdrawing it from Parliamentary consideration has been secretly signed.

In the history of the woman suffrage movement the Finnish Parliamentary elections of a few weeks ago should remain memorable. The results, recently announced, show the election of nineteen women as members of the Diet, or about one-sixth of the total number. It may be a not unrelated fact that the attendance at the University of Helsingfors is given as 2,640 men to 564 women, or about the same ratio as will prevail in the new Diet. "Long before the elections," an eye-witness writes, "there had been a well-organized and active agitation going on among the women, and the result was that an immensely large number of women have voted." In Helsingfors 55 per cent. of the votes were cast by women.

Many old women were brought on little sledges, drawn by their children or children's children to the polling-places. Usually, married people went together. When I stood in the row, waiting for my turn to come, I heard a young laboring couple discussing in a kind and friendly way their own family affairs—the baby, the girl's winter cloaks, the boy's schooling—while they were waiting.

The dispatches state that nine of the nineteen women Deputies are Socialists, a ratio that would probably hold good for the country at large.

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RIGHTEOUSNESS AND PEACE.

There appears to have been a pretty sharp difference of opinion at the Peace Congress, on Monday, over what looks a good deal, on close inspection, like a dispute about words. A phrase in President Roosevelt's letter started the controversy. He was for peace. But he was also for righteousness. If the two could be made to kiss each other, Scripture fashion, well and good; but if he had to choose between the two, give him righteousness every time. Yet the real question is if, at this stage of civilization, the great Powers of the world cannot make sure that we shall get both peace and righteousness every time.

The individual analogy—the status of the citizen before the courts of his own land—furnishes us the safest leading in this matter. A truly civilized man does not say: "I will, in general, submit my wrongs to the decision of appointed judges, to whom, also, I will confide the upholding of my rights, but in any case where I feel very strongly, and am thoroughly convinced of the justice of my cause, I will go out in person and club or shoot my antagonist." That would be border ruffianism. To take such a position would be to defend that barbarous and anti-social thing, "the unwritten law." The individual, we do not allow to decide whether he is "righteous" or not, in this judicial sense. We should be afraid that he would reduce everything to the simple formula: "What I want is righteous; what you desire is wicked." In a word, civilization has called upon men to give up being judges in their own cause, and to surrender the right of private vengeance. Murder, of course, persists, and lynch-law lingers, but both are recognized as survivals of savagery. And the real problem before the Peace Congress and the Hague Conference is whether an arrangement cannot be devised whereby a peaceful settlement of difficulties will be made as compulsory and satisfactory between nations as it has been between the citizens of each nation.

Secretary Root's address to the Congress pointed the way. He was said to have spoken for the Administration at Washington; but, to an extent, his words ate up those of the head of the Administration. Mr. Roosevelt's consuming fear lest the country may some day have to fight to prove that it is righteous, his Secretary of State showed to be practically groundless; for the chief point of Mr. Root's speech, in line as it was with the sentiment of some of the ablest and most enlightened jurists of the world, lay in his argument for a tribunal which could determine all international quarrels *judicially*. The weakness in international arbitration has always been the danger that decisions might lack this judicial quality. Arbitration tribunals have usually been made up of an equal number of delegates from each of the two disputing nations, with foreigners added as a sort of umpire. But this may make an important verdict against a given country really that of one man, and he an alien. This fact, as Lord Salisbury said, has made great Powers unwilling to agree to submit *all* controversies to arbitration. But Secretary Root showed how vastly different the case is when you have an august and permanent tribunal charged to decide in a judicial way every question submitted to it. Then we get a true international court, before which litigant nations may as properly be compelled to go as the citizen is to his own tribunals of justice. "What we now require," said Mr. Root, "is the substitution of judicial action for diplomatic action, the substitution of judicial sense of responsibility for diplomatic sense of responsibility. We need for arbitration judges who will be interested only in the question appearing upon the record before them. Plainly, this end is to be attained by the establishment of a court of permanent judges who will have no other occupation and no other interest but the exercise of the judicial faculty under the sanction of that high sense of responsibility."

It is clear that when the world gets such a bench of international judges, the logomachy about righteousness *versus* peace will have to be abandoned. The proper word to use is "justice," not righteousness. The latter implies a sense of personal worthiness which has no place in a law-suit. What a nation in court has to establish is, not its good opinion of itself, but the justice of its claims. And all questions about the superior civilization or morality of one country, as compared with those of its contestant, would have to be ruled out, as much as would be the pretension of a rich man that he is entitled to a different article of justice from a poor man. Even national self-righteousness, comfortable as it may be, could cut no figure in a case at law. There would be no possibility, as the President seems to imagine, of the United States becoming the successor to that "censorship" which, as Lord Rosebery has said, England has always assumed towards the rest of Europe, entitling her to "administer exhortation and rebuke" to other countries. We should simply have a system of impartial justice for all, and the acutely righteous peoples would have to submit to it along with those that admitted themselves to be no better than an ordinary Christian nation.

On the side issue of disarmament, there seems also to be no little confusion of thought. The Rev. Dr. Morgan Dix triumphantly confutes those who criticised his sermon of Sunday in praise of war, by saying that the objectors would disband the militia, abolish the police, and leave us all exposed to robbery, assault, and anarchy. But no peace man in his senses disputes the need of a visible embodiment of the police power. Even courts must have officers to execute their mandates. And if we get an international court, clothed with great authority and extensive jurisdiction, there will be required a sort of international police force to see that its decisions are obeyed. Thus the question of disarmament is, at the present time, merely one of less or more. And a new argument for an international agreement to lighten military burdens is found in the state of the world's money-markets to-day. With the rate of interest everywhere rising, military debts become more crushing, and the reasons against adding to them more commanding. If the leading nations would bind themselves to knock off $25,000,000 each from their military budgets, the resulting free capital would do much to strengthen credit and give a fresh impetus to commerce and industry and all the arts of progress.

CRIMINAL LAW REFORM.

Whatever may be the result of the long-drawn-out trial of Thaw in New York, the case is a scandal of the first magnitude, and a terrible blot upon the legal procedure of the United States. We cannot but feel that the weakest judge on our bench would have long ago found a way of bringing the question to the verdict of the jury, and of putting an end to the mass of irrelevancies imported into the case, and to the long arguments, in which every rule as to the admissibility of evidence has been distorted beyond the bounds of absurdity.—[From the *Solicitors' Journal*, London, March 30.

This foreign comment but echoes what thousands of Americans have felt and said about the lamentable state of our criminal law. Its network of uncertainties; its fine-spun technicalities which, like the gossamer threads in Southey's poem, turn to steel and bind fast the arm of justice; its intolerable delays; the series of traps which it sets for prosecutors, juries and judges, and courts of appeal; the premium which it puts upon crime committed by a rich man able to employ astute counsel who will thread a way to immunity through the tortuous mazes of our criminal practice, thus outraging propriety, making a mock of the law, and reducing to an absurdity the boast that all men are equal in a court of justice—all this has been exposed and deplored for years. Lawyers have mourned at it. Judges, like Justice Brewer of the Supreme Court, have shown what a shame it is. Reformers have cried out against it. The President of the United States has brought the matter to the attention of Congress. Yet nothing has been done.

What we would ask to-day is whether the long disgrace of the Thaw trial may not work at least the good of finally arousing public sentiment and professional obligation to the pitch of setting

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on foot a movement for the reform of this national abuse. Appeal must necessarily be made, above all others, to lawyers. It is their profession, for which they should have a jealous care, that most suffers from the chaotic state into which the criminal law has been allowed to fall. We could wish, therefore, that the Bar Association might speedily move in this matter, if only in the spirit of *pro domo suâ*. And the bench, also, might properly act on the precept of Lord Coke, that he considered every man who had been successful in his profession "under an obligation to benefit society." What greater benefit could any American bestow upon his kind than the removal of the reproach and danger which lie in the working—or failure to work—of our criminal law?

As in all reforms, however, it is to individual leaders that we must chiefly look. A man in whose heart the wrong burns is the source from which impulse flows to organizations and legislatures. No better or more pertinent illustration of this truth can be found than in the career of Sir Samuel Romilly, who did so much for the reform of the criminal law of England. It would be well if a copy of his Diary could be made prescribed reading for every lawyer in the State of New York. Romilly found his spur in the loftier sense of personal and professional duty. In his speech in the Commons in 1811, when bringing in his three bills for the reform of the then hideous criminal practice, he said:

> It is not from light motives that I have presumed to recommend an alteration in a matter so important as the Criminal Law of the land. I have always thought that it was the duty of every man to use the means which he possessed for the purpose of advancing the well-being of his fellow-creatures. My success and my good fortune in my profession have laid me under a debt to the society in which I live; and the way in which I intend to discharge that obligation is by endeavoring to meliorate the law, and thus to increase the security and happiness of my country.

This is not the place to recount Romilly's long struggles and large triumphs. He found the criminal law of England a barbarous code; justice being too often a synonym for horrible cruelty or fantastic caprice; he left it, after years of unwearied labors, somewhat more worthy of a Christian nation. The question is whether there are not Americans, like Romilly successful in the law and like him undaunted, who will feel that for them, too, *légalité oblige*, and will give themselves to the work of rescuing our criminal law from the fearful hugger-mugger into which it has drifted.

To be specific, the whole subject of expert testimony clamors for a thorough overhauling. It is to the clashing of experts in the Thaw trial, and the long wrangles over them, that we mainly owe the inexcusable prolongation of the case for nearly three months. In England, the man Rayner, who murdered the merchant, Mr. Whitely, on January 24, was tried and convicted on March 22. There was a personal scandal involved, as in the Thaw case; there was also the question of the murderer's irresponsibility; but an English judge, under the English practice, strictly enforcing the rules of evidence, and ruling out the vague guesses of insanity experts, brought all to a conclusion in *five hours*. Now, are we to take it out in exclaiming at the contrast with our vicious procedure, or are we to insist upon mending that procedure? American lawyers are prominent in public life. They fill the Legislatures and Congress. Are they going to do nothing to make such a reproach to American jurisprudence as the conduct of the Thaw trial hereafter impossible?

We are aware of the difficulties and discouragements in the way of any reformer of the slow-grown and inveterate abuses of the criminal law. The Commission on the Law's Delays had, in some respects, an easier task, but has been able as yet to accomplish only a part of it. Romilly was often rebuffed and long thwarted. But he returned again and again to the charge, telling the House of Commons: "I am not to be discouraged by the consideration that I have spent a great deal of time on this subject, without doing much good." Similar persistence, we are persuaded, combined with knowledge and energy and persuasive power of presentation, will crown with success the efforts of any honest and able lawyer to reclaim our criminal law, and make it a swift and sure terror to evil-doers.

PROBING SPECULATION BY DIRECTORS.

The Interstate Commerce Commission has declared that it will appeal to the United States Circuit Court for an order requiring E. H. Harriman to answer certain questions which he refused, by advice of counsel, to answer at the February hearing. The lawyers joined issue during the inquiry as to the sale of 103,000 shares of the Chicago and Alton syndicate's stock to the Union Pacific. The Commission's counsel, F. B. Kellogg, asked Mr. Harriman if he himself had owned any of the Alton stock, thus sold to his own company. His counsel, J. G. Milburn, thus objected:

> Who the individuals were who sold to the company is not, that I can see, a pertinent matter with reference to interstate commerce for the scope of this investigation. In other words, I say that there is a line; on one side of that are matters which are related to transactions of interstate commerce that are within the jurisdiction of this Commission. I say on the other side of this line are the private affairs of individuals.

And in accordance with this theory Mr. Harriman refused to answer all other questions as to his personal interest in sales of stock to the Union Pacific. To the question, "Were you directly or indirectly interested in any Union Pacific stocks bought between July 19 [the date when the very large Union Pacific dividend was decided on] and August 17 [the date of its public announcement]?" he refused to make any response whatever. A more general inquiry, as to his personal purchases of Union Pacific stock, drew forth flippant replies—that he had bought it, for instance, after its reorganization, in anticipation of last August's dividend. It was clear that the question of authority to require answers to such inquiries would have to be determined by a Federal court.

Mr. Kellogg's argument in behalf of the Interstate Commission's power was somewhat technical; its gist was that the Commission's enlarged authority over rates, under the Hepburn Act, made inquiry into all circumstances affecting rates a necessity. Inflation of capital by a board of directors, for their personal profit or otherwise, has some bearing on the question of rates. Hence, he maintained, the provision of the Interstate Commerce Act that the Commission "shall have the right to obtain from such common carriers full and complete information necessary to enable the Commission to perform the duties and carry out the objects for which it was created," and that to this end it "may invoke the aid of any court of the United States in requiring the attendance and testimony of witnesses"—this provision would cover these questions as to personal operations of directors. C. A. Severance, in behalf of the Commission, further emphasized the point that the Union Pacific, "having seen fit to depart from the ordinary line of business for which railroad corporations are organized," had gone into the banking and investment business. Yet any unwise or unlucky venture in this line necessarily "weakens or lessens its capacity for future usefulness as a railroad corporation." Hence the propriety of the inquiry.

These arguments appear to us to have much weight—certainly more than Mr. Milburn's rejoinder that "not outside the Orient do such extraordinary powers exist" as the Commission claims. Whatever the technical right or wrong in the matter immediately at issue, the power of inquiry here asserted is not only enjoyed without dispute by Congressional and Legislative committees, but is constantly exercised by them. A contumacious witness goes to jail. Such celebrated Congressional inquiries as that into the "Credit Mobilier" scandal in the original financing of Union Pacific, or that which unearthed the facts of the Gould-Fisk conspiracy in the gold mar-

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ket before Black Friday, prove that this right of inquiring into the personal speculations of men in responsible positions is a matter of long-established precedent. It is therefore our conviction that, if the right to insist upon the questions put to Mr. Harriman were to be denied to the Interstate Commission, that right is likely to be asserted in short order by a Congressional committee.

Unless they are guilty trustees, Mr. Harriman and his fellow-directors ought to welcome the full disclosure of all the facts surrounding Union Pacific's 10 per cent. dividend and $130,000,000 stock investments last autumn. These men are aware that suspicion surrounds, and has from the first surrounded, both these incidents. Presumably, they know that Wall Street holds implicitly to the belief that these directors "jockeyed" with the declaration of the dividend; suppressed monthly statements of Southern Pacific earnings which bore directly on the dividend question; fomented, in London and New York, an extravagant stock speculation in connection with Union Pacific's dividend, and eventually, by borrowings for this speculation, deranged the money market and jeopardized the business interests of the country.

We do not say that this Wall Street belief has yet been proved true. But we are certain that Mr. Harriman's refusal to answer certain questions has persuaded a good part of the public that it is true, and we further hold that, if it is, then the time has come to take further steps for the regulation, not of our railway rates, but of our railway directors. Discussion about the propriety of directors' speculating in the Stock Exchange, on secret advance information regarding their own stock, is regarded in many quarters, we are quite aware, as a purely academic dispute, an unprofitable search after counsels of perfection. It is our opinion, however, that, even in those quarters, sentiment has been changing since we have learned the power that four or five men may exercise with a $130,000,000 cash fund. The end towards which such financial power, secretly exercised and unrestrained by law or scruple, must inevitably lead our railway enterprises, ought to be plain to every one who has read the similar chapter in our railway history of forty years ago.

CROMER IN EGYPT.

Egypt without Evelyn Baring, Lord Cromer! The reading world is trying to-day to adjust itself to the thought. It was in 1877 that Major Baring arrived in Cairo, after nearly twenty years in the Royal Artillery and four years of service as private secretary to the Earl of Northbrook, Viceroy of India. Since that time, or at least since 1883, his name has stood for progress in Egypt, for the reform of the courts and of the fiscal system, the practical abolition of forced labor, the development of irrigation, and progress in a hundred other directions. A nation humiliated and impoverished by its rulers, has been set upon its feet and been helped far along the road towards prosperity and self-government. Profiting largely by the British mistakes in India, Lord Cromer has made of Egypt England's greatest success in colonization, or better, administration. Nowhere else the world over has the attempt of a superior race to guide a backward one been on the whole so praiseworthy.

How great the task which fell to Cromer only those can realize who go back to the time when he became British consul, or pro-consul. The Arabi Pasha revolution of 1882 was the sincere effort of an abominably oppressed people to throw off the yoke of a dissolute spendthrift. The foreign bondholders chose to regard it—as many writers do to-day—as merely the mutiny of an unpaid army. Acting for them, England suppressed the rebellion, banished Arabi, and took hold in Cairo. The city seethed with intrigue and discontent. The Mahdi movement grew apace; one great southern province after another fell away, until, with the tragedy of Khartum, the Egyptian frontier was forced back to the Second Cataract. Naturally, the Mahdi had his followers in Cairo itself, who gathered courage from the disputes among the hated foreigners, and particularly from the opposition of the French. For many months Cromer, with a most aggressive foe on his borders, lived in expectation of a fanatical uprising in the capital, and neither in Upper nor in Lower Egypt were there trustworthy troops, save those of the small English garrison.

Still, Cromer's spirit remained undaunted. He left the Mahdi in peace for seven years, while a new Egyptian army—and an admirable one—was built up out of raw material. Finally, after eleven years of planning and waiting, he overthrew the Mahdi's successor, and won back for Egypt her vast Equatorial territory. Meanwhile, the internal reforms had proceeded swiftly. The Barrage below Cairo, like the huge dam at Assuan, became the source of great wealth, while vast schemes for utilizing the waters of the Upper Nile for irrigation are even now under consideration. The fellah became, in the eyes of the law, an equal with the once overbearing and despotic pasha. In an incredibly short time, from a bankrupt state, Egypt became one of the most flourishing countries in the world. This financial transformation was particularly Lord Cromer's work. His first relation with Egypt was as Commissioner of the Public Debt. He found the country running behind each year in a way to make its escape from entanglements seem impossible, particularly in view of the varying opinions among the debtor nations. Just how the way to solvency and prosperity was found has recently been set forth at length by Sir Auckland Colvin, the British comptroller-general in Egypt and financial adviser to the Khedive. Sir Auckland, like Lord Milner, and Lord Cromer's successor, Sir Eldon Gorst, is eager to give Lord Cromer full credit for all he has done. "The making of modern Egypt," says Sir Auckland, "is the work of Lord Cromer; without him it might scarcely have been accomplished, and with his name it will be identified." Beyond all doubt, Lord Cromer, who is now sixty-six years old, has won for himself imperishable renown as among the greatest of England's long line of distinguished administrators.

And yet it is noteworthy that his retirement coincides with a period of great unrest along the Nile, with the demand for Egypt for the Egyptians more outspoken than ever before. Each month shows that the movement is, if anything, steadily growing stronger. Thus Sir Eldon Gorst faces a new problem, different from the old, more delicate and difficult of settlement. True, Lord Cromer has gradually increased the share of the Egyptians in their government. Their constitution comprises a Legislative Council and a General Assembly, and no law or decree calling for administrative changes can be promulgated without the Council's consent. A greater share in local administration is being granted to the natives. Yet much remains to be done. The courts have still to learn to apply the law with judgment and discrimination; indeed, as the *Edinburgh Review* said recently, "until these questions have been settled, it cannot be said that the protection of life and property in Egypt is efficiently assured." That the native has small chance in the criminal courts when opposed by Englishmen, Wilfrid Blunt and others have recently asserted.

Indeed, it may be asked whether Lord Cromer's wonderful success may not become the best object-lesson the world has had, that no government, however admirable, is so good as self-government. The powers which the native Egyptians now enjoy, instead of contenting them, simply make them long for the rights and privileges of the self-governing nations of Europe. This, indeed, is the instinct planted deep in the human heart. Lord Cromer himself has shown great nervousness—now explained, perhaps, by his physical condition—over the situation. His shockingly harsh and really illegal punishment of the natives who attacked British officers at Denshawei is proof that even this notable administrator, at the end of his career, ruled by force rather than by affection, and felt it necessary to main-

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tain the prestige of his nation by mediæval cruelty. Doubtless, the debate as to whether Lord Cromer has been a benevolent despot or an iron-handed autocrat and oppressor, will go on indefinitely. But his fame is securely established as one of the great men of our times.

A UNIVERSITY AT WASHINGTON.

Just now a new claimant for intellectual headship among American cities is appearing. A movement is afoot for capitalizing, under private initiative, the immense apparatus of scholarship at the national capital. All roads lead to Washington; and so let New York, Chicago, Boston, and even Indianapolis, drop into provincial obscurity while the nation acclaims Washington as the ideal residence for the literary man, the scholar, the scientist, the jurist, the student of diplomatic relations, for whoever, in short, leads the intellectual life. A national university, embodying the conceptions of the founders of the republic, is, we are told, at last to be created. The scientific, historical, and literary treasures of governmental museums and archives are to be rendered accessible as never before to candidates for university degrees.

The promoters of the George Washington University movement are much in earnest. They are now closing a campaign for providing a suitable site. They are seeking no Congressional help, but their endeavor is to enlist the sympathies and coöperation of the entire country. Nationally prominent men, including the President and the Secretary of the Treasury, have expressed approval of the scheme. Reasons are being advanced by speakers at public meetings why Washington, already a considerable social centre, should also become the intellectual capital of the United States. In most lands, it is asserted, the seat of government contains the greatest, and in many instances the only great university. The energetic director of the Bureau of American Republics tells of meeting a Hindu potentate at the Delhi Durbar, who announced his intention of sending his son to Harvard because he wished him to have the advantages of life at the American capital, but who, when informed that the only American university with whose name he was familiar was situated nearly 500 miles from Washington, was immediately shaken alike in his determination and in his admiration of American good sense. An impressive exhibition, in fact, of arguments in favor of doing in this first decade of the nineteenth century what members of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 wished to do, and what the first President sought to accomplish through his will and testament, is being set forth.

Out of the present agitation Washington seems likely to secure a university of distinct importance, devoted in the main to graduate study of a highly specialized character. That in number of students or magnitude of private equipment it will be on a footing with longer established institutions of learning, may be doubted. Its opportunity will lie in pushing the development of facilities which cannot be duplicated elsewhere. In certain branches of study it may easily outrank all other American universities; in such subjects, indeed, as diplomacy, international law, American history since 1800, meteorology, and the application of the physical sciences to agriculture, it seemingly must lead all others.

The ambitious university at Washington will not need a large acreage, with an array of museums and libraries, because these the national Government has established. Indeed, according to report, the university will be relocated on a tract of rather less than ten acres—land enough, no doubt, for such headquarters as are necessary where students do much of their work outside. In contradistinction, however, Harvard University now occupies, exclusive of lands held for investment purposes, 542 acres. The Harvard Medical School alone occupies a site of twelve acres, considerably larger than the property proposed for the George Washington University. Yale has an acreage somewhat smaller than that of Harvard; and Columbia, situated in the metropolis, where land cannot be held for the purposes of an agricultural college or of a museum of living trees, covers a tract of nearly thirty-five acres. Chicago University's troubles arising from inadequate space in which to develop were allayed only by the gift, two or three years ago, of about sixty-five acres frontage on Lake Geneva.

But when Washington has its university, what of New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and other important centres of population? Professors of Columbia and Harvard and Yale will hardly migrate in a body to Washington. Nor will the institutions of our large cities be henceforth devoted solely to undergraduate work, leaving the fields of special research to be cultivated at Washington alone—not while the museums, libraries, and laboratories of several great communities offer to students exceptional facilities, many of which are by no means duplicated in governmental departments. We must remember that, exacting as the teaching profession is, the research instinct is normally strong among scholars. Facilities offered in New York or Boston tempt the studious just as the resources of Washington are tempting. Moreover, utilization at one centre furthers utilization at all the others. The sections from which an important university at Washington will be most likely to draw its students are the West and South. As the result of an increased disposition to seek educational opportunities as far East as the District of Columbia, many a student will find his way for a year or two at Johns Hopkins, Columbia, or Harvard, who but for the attractions of the capital city would never have gone beyond the senior year of the little provincial college in Texas or South Dakota. Thus, with scholarly assets already well developed and with comparatively few liabilities, the other leading American communities can afford to regard with friendly interest and without jealousy the present movement to secure an educational capitalization of the Smithsonian Institute, the National Museum, the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Standards, the Congressional Library, and all the other working laboratories of the National Government. For the existing federation of intellectual capitals of the continent is certain to persist.

COLORLESS PROPER NAMES.

There is a fascinating if considerably discredited branch of philology in which the facts of language are, in the absence of other documents, made to imply the facts of history. Many of us preserve from college days a complete and engaging picture of that Aryan race which descended from the plateau of Iran to rule the world, and that linguistic pastoral still imposes itself in the face of a more skeptical science. Now, a philologer who studied the development of proper names from this point of view would not fail to note their melancholy tendency to bleach out in the wearing. At any early period, and indeed well towards the beginnings of modern history, proper names told something as to paternity, occupation, and habitation: to-day they are quite colorless. A new Ulysses would no longer be Laertides; no Peter indicates that he is the son of Paul. A Carpenter or a Weaver is likely to be a lily-fingered stockbroker. Even the place names have pretty much disappeared, except in the case of nobility, and since the average gentle family has not for years lived on its titular estate, or perhaps has had none at all, our new Gastons de Foix give us a name about as sapless as John Jones.

A social philosopher who should generalize fearlessly from these facts would probably infer that about the end of the Middle Ages filial affection lost its force. At about the same time he would find life became so mobile that the professions and handicrafts no longer descended from father to son, a plebeian Wright becoming a bourgeois Mercer, or even an aristocratic Chamberlain, without even taking the trouble to change his name. Then our philologer would assert that men became wanderers on the face of the earth, so that it was no longer worth any one's while to call himself

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John of Paris or Robert of Lincoln. Thus no new place names were invented, and the old gradually became misnomers. If history were interpreted in this light we should have, in short, a progress towards ruthless individualism, a general renunciation of all the venerable ties of birth, home, and calling, so that names became actually less significant than the police ticket carried by the thoroughly regimented citizens of France and Germany. Having small skill either in philology or ethnology, the *Nation* does not wish to make itself responsible for this teaching in its entirety. It would merely note the fact that proper names have bleached out, and remark a tendency in naïve romantic quarters to restore the original colors.

This effort to rehabilitate a debilitated onomasticon is quite in the normal order of things. Just as once in a while some human being obligingly grows a tail to prove that we all had them once, so the real children of nature will on occasion rebel at the mere label and make it into real name, bringing it back to type. In sporting circles this is commonly the case. The Brompton Pet is merely one instance among many. Our betting ring had, perhaps still has, a Pittsburgh Phil. Mining camps, in sheer desire to cope with their miscellaneous population, rechristen all inhabitants of any prominence after their homes, or places of last departure. In this process literature gladly follows life. The dime novel presents only such titles as Klondike Kit, Bowery Bill, or Saratoga Sal. When the dime novel grew in bulk and repute it sacrificed merely the meretricious grace of alliteration. We were thrilled by Mr. Potter of Texas, Mr. Barnes of New York, and a host of imitators—all of no mean city. With a better warrant, hero-worship seeks pregnant names—Kitchener of Khartum, Tippecanoe, Stonewall Jackson, Ossawatomie Brown. The principle seems to be that whenever the mere family label is inadequate, a more honorable or descriptive title replaces it. Among boys, who in this matter repeat the history of the race, a whole category of honorifics prevails.

Whenever for any cause the baptismal name becomes unavailable, one may see the reversionary process actively at work. In Italy, for example, where the native servants cannot remember or even pronounce the foreign names, all expatriates soon gain a handier denomination. One is announced as the Gentleman from San Domenico, or the Via Ricasoli, as the Sympathetic Redhaired Gentleman, as the Tall Wife of the Short Signore, the Signorina with the Fur Hat, the Lady with the Automobile, or whatever characteristic or attribute happens to strike the keen Italian eye. Sometimes these nicknames shift according to circumstances, illustrating the celerity with which such epithets as Light Horse Harry, or, better, Charles the Bald, were coined. A certain Italianate Englishman, accustomed to hearing himself announced at a hospitable villa as the "Longhaired Gentleman," was surprised one evening to be received as the "Longhaired Gentleman, but now it's short." So was well-doing ever rewarded in the good old days when names still had color.

PARIS BOOK NEWS.

PARIS, April 2.

"Lettres de jeunesse"—the first of the three parts of Émile Zola's correspondence—is the book of the season, not from intrinsic merit, but because of the writer. More than one-half of the volume is presented under the bare title of "Lettres à Baille," dated from the writer's twentieth to his twenty-third year after he came up to Paris from his college at Aix in Provence. Then follow eighty pages of letters of the same years to Paul Cézanne, who is Cézanne the painter. Finally, there are short, scrappy letters to Marius Roux, with whom he attempted theatrical collaboration; these reach from 1864 to 1872, and bring us to the Zola who was beginning to be known as an acrid defender of new men in art, like Manet. But the volume discloses practically nothing of the mind of the man who was to find Naturalism. On the contrary, it is an unknown Zola that appears copiously in these letters to college friends who shared with him the dreams of his teens. Literary ambition is the keynote, but Zola's particular ambition is lyric poetry. In his efforts to pass the University examinations in Paris he remains under the influences which began his mental formation when a boy. His inspired prophets are Michelet and George Sand, with Montaigne as he grows older; and to his friends who are still on the benches, he writes endless continuations of Sainte-Beuve's criticism. So far no Flaubert, no Taine, has crossed his path; he believes in God, and Ary Scheffer is his chosen painter. He laboriously expatiates on Shakespeare; his style has little rebound even when he is most lyrical about sylphs and veritable, complete love and the like; and he corrects realism by "spiritualism," which we call the Ideal. All has been edited without comment.

Several March books bear with varying importance on present politics. "La Conférence d'Algésiras," by André Tardieu completes the sensational article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* which first authentically disclosed "the hidden springs of the Franco-German conflict." In the Paris *Temps*, to whose staff he belongs, this same author, during the negotiations, published frequent articles signed "Georges Villiers," which were evidently inspired by the French Foreign Office. This virtually official character gives its value to the book. Since its publication the author has answered at length in the *Kölnische Zeitung* (March 30) certain criticisms made in Germany, with a final reply in the Paris *Temps* (April 1); the Cologne journal's chief reproach is significantly that he has limited himself to "stating facts exactly" instead of "discussing the interpretation of them."

"Le Vingtième Siècle politique (1906)," by René Wallier, is the annual review of French politics in the series begun in 1874 under the name of "André Daniel" (ex-Minister André Lebon). The year's Presidential and Parliamentary elections, the separation of Church and State, new social laws and strikes, the budget, the official winding up of the Dreyfus case, and the Moroccan question are treated readably, with full citation of documentary reports. The tendency of the book may be described as moderately Radical. "Luttes pour la liberté de l'Église Catholique aux États-Unis," by G. André, a priest, relates summarily how Roman Catholics in America remedied the blunders of legislation imposing an unfavorable trustee system on their churches. This is for Frenchmen, whose public worship associations have failed so disastrously among Catholics. But it would be well if the whole subject, from the point of view of international comparison, could be handled in a complete university thesis on the Constitutional question. "Autour du Catholicisme social" is a volume of essays written mainly for the *Revue des Deux Mondes* under the Brunetière régime; the author, Georges Goyau, and his wife (daughter of President Félix Faure) are leading writers of the more modern school of Roman Catholics in France.

In books of history the Revolution is always to the fore. The first volume of the Memoirs of the Comtesse de Boigne, *née* d'Osmond, has gone through five editions in less than that number of weeks. This wide-awake lady, unbiassed by charity or principle, and curiously without emotion, like so many of her class, was grown up when the Revolution broke out, escaped the fate of most of her friends by a discreet emigration to England, and survived almost into our own times. She tells too good a story to be always accurate; and Chancellor Pasquier, a survivor like herself, to whom she confided her manuscript, would not consent to its publication; his heir, the Duke-academician d'Audiffret-Pasquier, allowed Taine to consult it; and now the d'Osmond family takes on itself the responsibility of its publication. The present instalment reaches from 1781 to 1814. In "Lettres d'aristocrates," Pierre de Vaissière edits exact contemporary testimony of "the Revolution as recounted in private correspondence" during the fateful years from 1789 to 1794. "Les Fils de Philippe-Égalité pendant la Terreur" is the second number of G. Lenôtre's documentary Memoirs and Souvenirs of the Revolution.

Frédéric Masson of the French Academy has published the eighth and ninth volumes of his work on "Napoléon et sa famille." In a recent letter he denies that the documents from which he has taken the matter of his extraordinary series of perhaps thirty volumes on Napoleon have been furnished to him by the family; he will disclose his sources when the time comes to do so. The present volumes take up the abdication at Fontainebleau and Napoleon's solicitude to extort ample provision for all the members of his family, none of whom seems to have been troubled about Napoleon's fate. The whole family had but one fear—"that the allied Powers

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would oblige them to go to the island of Elba, and would make this a condition of the income to be assigned them." Joseph and Jérôme tried to run off with Marie Louise as a hostage. Jérôme writes to his sister Elisa: "The Emperor, after bringing ruin on us, outlives himself—he is no longer the same man." Meanwhile, Napoleon, in the agony of his Empire, was holding out for a million of francs a year for Josephine, 400,000 for Hortense, 300,000 for his mother—and so on to 500,000 each for Joseph and Jérôme. M. Masson works out to the last documented item this tragi-comedy wherein Napoleon was so great and the Bonapartes so little.

For those interested in military history there is, in the General Staff publications, the fifth volume of "L'Expédition d'Égypte," by C. de la Jonquière, centring in the victory of Aboukir and Napoleon's return; and two volumes of an "Étude sur les guerres d'Espagne," by Commandant G. Bagès, from the French invasion to the evacuation through Portugal, with the operations of Soult and Wellington. Both these works are amply furnished with technical plans.

In the history of art should be noticed the expensively engraved "L'Art byzantin," of which the third number has appeared—Pomposa and Ravenna. In Italian "Le Origine della pittura veneziana," by Lionello Venturi, has been crowned by the Royal Institute of Arts and Sciences of Venice; it is the first history of Venetian painting.

In the history of literature a subject of vast importance in every region of thought has been twice treated: "Le Romantisme français," by Pierre Lasserre, is an essay on the revolution in feelings and ideas during the nineteenth century; "Byron et le romantisme français," by Edmond Estève, university lecturer at Poitiers, is a thesis for the doctorate of letters on the fortune and influence of Byron's works in France from 1812 to 1850. Paris also publishes two volumes in Spanish on Spanish-American writers at the beginning of the twentieth century, under the title of "Los Contemporaneos," by Andres Gonzales Blanco.

The output of fiction under known names, or by writers that give promise of making themselves known, is scanty. Édouard Rod publishes "L'ombre s'étend sur la montagne," pensive and refined like all his works, but, like them, chilled with the dry cold of Calvinism; still this Swiss Parisian has undoubtedly reached all but the very first rank of French novelists. "La Terre ensorcelée," by Jean Vignaud, is the second, perhaps third, book of a writer who speculates socially to some purpose and promises much for future novels from his hand.

Finally, there are a few books of very special scope, but not without interest for a very general class of readers. "La Philosophie de M. Sully Prudhomme," by Camille Hémon, reduces to convenient compass and system the speculations of one who is a thinker as well as a poet. "Les Quatres Évangiles," by Albert Metzger, is a collection of texts and documents constituting materials for the history of the Oriental origins of Christianity. "Essai critique et théorique sur l'association en psychologie," by Dr. Paul Sollier, the authority on nervous diseases and drug addictions, gives experimental philosophy from his point of view. S. D.

Correspondence.

ARCHÆOLOGY AND LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I venture as one interested in archæology, and—to admit a further weakness—in prehistoric archæology, to criticise two statements in your correspondence of March 28? The first, by Prof. F. G. Allinson of Brown University, is to the effect that archæology is the handmaid of literature; the second, by Dr. W. N. Bates of the University of Pennsylvania, gives a classification of Mycenæan and Cretan palaces, which is to me unintelligible, although I have spent five seasons in excavating and in studying the excavations of others in Crete.

To deal with the general statement first. Professor Allinson writes: "But to one that estimates literature at its true worth, philology and archæology are only handmaids." If this be so, what becomes of American archæology and of the prehistoric archæology of Europe, which have no literature that is as yet legible? Would Egyptian antiquities have no lesson to teach us if the Rosetta stone had never been deciphered? Although Professor Allinson's view was common enough in the earlier days of antiquarian research, no archæologist worthy of the name would be content in this twentieth century to have his labors classified as adjuncts to literature, even to classical literature. He would think the beautiful crater in the Bibliothèque Nationale deserved study even if no literary tradition existed to inform him that the figures represented on it are Poseidon, Amphitrite, and Theseus. His labors play an independent part, and have their own field distinct from that of literature. This was clearly recognized as early as 1850 by Sir Charles Newton, whose essay "On the Study of Archæology" begins with the significant words, "The record of the Human Past is not all contained in printed books." There is another record to be read in form and in color, and in the adaptation of practical means to an end, and Dr. Karl Sittl has emphasized the special qualification needed to interpret it: "Whoever wishes to be an archæologist must above all else be able to *see*." This record is no mere elucidation of the written word. Man has expressed himself as clearly and as worthily in the work of artist, artisan, or inventor as in his literature; indeed, at the present time he is expressing himself far more clearly and worthily through the visible, tangible things that, when past, form the subject matter of archæology (τὰ ἀρχαῖα), than he is in his literature. It is by the archæologists of future generations that this present generation will be vindicated, not by the students of literature. For, to quote Sir Charles Newton again,

> Wherever man has left the stamp of mind on brute matter; whether he designate his work as structure, texture, or mixture, mechanical or chymical; whether the result be a house, a ship, a garment, a piece of glass, or a metallic implement, these memorials of economy and invention will always be worthy of the attention of the Archæologist. . . . Our true motto should be "Homo sum, humani nihil a me alienum puto."

It is clear that archæology is closely allied to anthropology, is indeed included in it in the wider sense of that science which is "the proper study of mankind." This fact is recognized in England, when archæology gains admission to the sessions of the British Association for the Advancement of Science by being classed under anthropology. We have too long limited it to classical fields. Dr. Montelius in a recent book is careful to state, "By Archæology I understand not only the study of classical antiquity (*klassische Alterthumskunde*), but, in accordance with its etymology, the study of antiquity in general." Possibly through the instalment of archæology as a fit subject of study in our universities, there may ultimately come an interest as broad and cultural in the arts and industries of the *present* as there now is in modern literature, both properly based on knowledge of the past. This seems to me to be the true purpose of archæology, and its hope.

To turn from the general to the particular: I wish that the meaning of Dr. Bates's interesting communication might be made clearer. He tells us that "Mycenæan palaces are of two types; the Cnossus type and the Tiryns type"; and that Dr. Dörpfeld considers the building he found last spring at Alt-Ithake (modern, Leucas) to be of the Cnossus type. This seems strange, in view of the fact that Dr. Dörpfeld agrees with Cretan excavators that the remains *now visible* at Cnossus are "old Cretan" (*altkretische*), or, as might also be said, genuine Cretan (*echtkretische*), distinctly *non*-Mycenæan.

Is Dr. Bates using the term Mycenæan in a general way to cover Prehellenic antiquities? He must be aware that this usage is out of date, now that research has firmly established the fact that in time and in importance the island civilization as developed at Cnossus is prior to the mainland civilization as seen at Mycenæ. When the Cnossus type of palace is mentioned, one naturally thinks of the vast structure Dr. Evans has laid bare, comprising a great central inner court, around which are grouped countless rooms, corridors, stairways, whole suites of apartments, bathrooms, light-wells, etc., which are the essential parts of an "old-Cretan" palace. Among these there is no great hall or *megaron*, which, according to Dr. Dörpfeld, is the characteristic feature of a Mycenæan palace. Does Dr. Bates mean that there are two types of prehistoric palaces in Greek lands, the Cnossus type (Cretan) and the Tiryns type (Mycenæan), and that the building found at Leucas resembles the former? If so, the discovery is indeed important, overthrowing Dr. Dörpfeld's contention that "Homeric palaces have no resemblance to the 'old-Cretan' buildings, but agree with the Achæan palaces of Tiryns and Mycenæ," or else proving that the building at Leucas is not the house of Odysseus, or that Odysseus, who is usually accounted an Achæan of the Achæans, did not live in an "Homeric palace."

But a few persons who read Dr. Bates's communication will remember that evidence afforded by scanty remains in the southwest corner of his excavations led Dr. Evans to reconstruct on paper a *megaron* supported by walls and pillars which are still *in situ*. This *megaron* Dr. Evans believes to have belonged to an upper story, now vanished, of his Minoan palace; but

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Dr. Dörpfeld thinks it formed part of a later palace of Mycenæan style, built by Achæan invaders. In certain details of proportions and numbers of columns the Mycenæan style, which Dr. Dörpfeld finds as a late intrusion into Crete, differs from the Mycenæan style of the mainland. Does Dr. Bates mean, then, that the house of Odysseus resembles this sub-type of the Mycenæan palace, having the characteristic *megaron*, but one that is wider than it is deep, with a one- or three-columned arrangement of façade, instead of being deeper than wide, with a two-columned arrangement of façade, like the palace at Tiryns? If this is his meaning, one wonders why he did not use Phæstus instead of Cnossus as his sub-type; for Dr. Dörpfeld himself says that of the later palace of Mycenæan style which he believes to have *once* existed at Cnossus so little remains "that neither its measurements nor its plan can be determined," and its *megaron* is reconstructed after the model furnished by the Italian excavations at Phæstus. To be sure, the *megaron* of Mycenæan type which Dr. Dörpfeld sees at Phæstus is interpreted by Dr. Mackenzie as a characteristically "old-Cretan" arrangement of portico and light-well; and, while the matter is still in dispute, it would seem to some persons dogmatic to speak of a Phæstus type of Mycenæan palace. But all who are acquainted with Dr. Dörpfeld's views would know what was meant. As questions of race-migration as well as "difficulties in the account of the slaying of the suitors in the Odyssey" are involved, may we hope to have from Dr. Bates a more exact statement of what he learned from Dr. Dörpfeld concerning the resemblance of the building he has found at Leucas to ancient buildings on Cretan soil?

In the interests of clearness, "Mycenæan" as a chronological term should be carefully limited to the last phase of the Bronze Age, the only one at all adequately represented at Mycenæ. The new term "Minoan," advanced by Dr. Evans, has a wider content; for Cnossus, the capital of King Minos, was inhabited from the beginning to the end of the Bronze Age, and "Minoan" may be considered a picturesque equivalent of an adjective applicable to the entire Bronze Age of Greek lands. For convenience, Cretan excavators now use the terms Early Minoan, Middle Minoan, and Late Minoan, to denote periods of time which are roughly contemporaneous with the Old, Middle, and New Empires of Egypt. In point of time, therefore, Mycenæ is Late Minoan. As regards types of architecture, by "Mycenæan" is meant a type having *megaron*, fore-hall, portico, and court, which prevailed on the mainland of Greece at the close of the Bronze Age, and was introduced into at least one island, Melos. Whether it was introduced into Crete is, as we have seen, a matter of dispute, but if so it can only be studied at Phæstus. HARRIET BOYD HAWES.

New York, April 8.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of March 28, Francis G. Allinson concludes his discussion of "Literature and Philology" by saying: "To him that estimates literature at its true worth, philology and archæology are, after all, only handmaids." This statement does not, it seems to me, cover the whole ground. A philological investigation may issue in a result "ancillary to the needs of literature," but it rarely does. Grimm's Law is the greatest discovery yet made in philology, but has it anything to do with literature? English philology, to speak of the philology of a single tongue, became possible only when men realized that the English language had an individuality of its own, certain inner principles of growth and decay, that conditioned its evolution. Philology is not possible so long as men look on language as a bundle of imposed laws. As soon, however, as language is viewed as a development from within, reflecting at the same time the needs, the limitations, the intellectual gait, the racial contacts, the cross-fertilizations of a people through many centuries, its philology assumes the dignity of a science.

This science may contribute to literature, but this is by no means its only or even its primary function. Its first duty is to find and to correlate the laws of its own growth. Botany would still be a science if it contributed nothing to our æsthetic appreciation of flowers, because botany illustrates certain principles of nature, laws of life and growth, which it behooves man as man to know. The recognition of these laws brings its own reward and proclaims its own worth.

English philology to-day, as exemplified in doctoral dissertations, is at its very nadir of dryness and irrelevancy. It shows no sense of relative values, no discrimination between the essential and the unessential, and no feeling for constructive generalization. *Son centre n'est pas au milieu.* Counting has taken the place of weighing. "It is an old and firm conviction of mine," wrote Darwin to J. D. Hooker, December 21, 1859, "that the naturalists who accumulate facts and make many partial generalizations are the *real* benefactors of science. Those who merely accumulate facts I cannot much admire."

C. ALPHONSO SMITH.

University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, April 1.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Nobody is likely, one may suppose, to deny the contention of Mrs. Hawes that archæology has long since established its place as an independent science. This was *un fait accompli* before she made her own important contributions, of which her countrymen—even heretical ones—are justly proud. My communication to the *Nation* of March 28, while incidentally combating the suicidal tendency to underestimate the worth of philology, was concerned with the real evaluation of literature; and in speaking of the content of archæology as ancillary to literature, reference, of course, was had to the monuments of those peoples who, fortunately for us, have also left us a still greater legacy in their literature.

Between those who have little interest in literature as such, and those who regard it as of primary importance, there is a great gulf fixed. There are many sciences, and their interdependences are manifold. Comparative philology, as a well-known biologist recently remarked, blazed the way by its method for comparative anatomy; and to-day the lecturer on languages in his turn draws striking illustration from comparative anatomy. But when literature is made subordinate to any science, one is tempted to point out that it occupies a different sphere, and, to repeat the words of F. W. H. Myers:

> The highest use of language, the highest use, one may say, of history itself, has been to bestow a few thousand lines of poetry, for which *all other study of bygone ages* is but practice and preparation.

FRANCIS G. ALLINSON.

Brown University, Providence, R. I., April 14.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statements in my letter of March 28, to which objection is taken, are Dörpfeld's own. When he used the word Mycenæan—which, by the way, was correctly used—I presume he had no more idea of committing himself to any theory of the origin of Cretan building than I had in quoting him.

As to Mrs. Hawes's communication as a whole, it should be remembered that fact is one thing and theory another; and that the latter should not be mistaken for the former. WILLIAM N. BATES.

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, April 14.

THE HITTITES AND PELASGIANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent reading of Drerup's "Homer" and an examination of the literature therein cited reminds me once more of an omission that I cannot help but regard as remarkable, particularly in view of the fact that I have noted the same omission in almost all the books dealing with prehistoric Greece. I refer to Father De Cara's "Gli Hethei-Pelasgi." Its three volumes aggregate about 1,750 large octavo pages. The first was published in Rome in 1894; the second and third in 1902. As one would infer from the title, this erudite work is an attempt to prove that the Pelasgians were Hittites. The author does not go so far as Dr. Campbell, who found Hittites scattered over almost the entire habitable globe; nor perhaps as far as Professor Sayce. But he does maintain that he has found Hittite remains on the eastern and southern shores of the Black Sea, all around the Ægean, and as far eastward as the Euphrates, in Cyprus, in Crete, almost all over Italy, and sporadically elsewhere. Whether the author's contention be right or wrong, he has made a very interesting book. He seems to have read everything ancient and modern that promised to shed the faintest light upon the subject of his inquiry. Notwithstanding his erudition he has his matter well in hand, so that his volumes are not only interesting, but agreeable reading as well. As might be expected, he relies to a considerable extent on etymologies to prove his position. Of these, it may be said that if they are no better, they are no worse than many that were regarded as strictly *en règle* a score of years ago. Dr. Menge sums up the situation in the Preface to his recent "Griechisch-Deutsches Schulwörterbuch" with the remark that "wir, trotz aller gewonnen Ergebnisse heutzutage auf etymologischem Gebiete, ungleich weniger wissen als man vor dreiszig oder gar vor fünfzig Jahren zu wissen wähnten." Here is Father De Cara's explanation of the word Pelasgi: Pel- signifies in Hamitic *advena*. Ati and Asi are equivalent to Khati, which

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means Asia; that is, Khatia, the land of the Hittites, or Asia; and Pelasgi, that is, Pelatiki, are therefore foreigners from Asia. He finds the same syllable in Pelation, Velatri, Eretria, Elatia, Ferentinum, Platææ, Plothia, Latium, Latini, and in many other words.

So far as I am aware, the excavations in Crete and elsewhere that have been made since these books were published have revealed nothing that stamps the learned Jesuit's hypothesis as untenable. I have, however, not seen any reference to it in any German or American publication, and only a few in French and British periodicals.

CHARLES W. SUPER.

Athens, O., March 30.

PREVAILING USAGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Advocates of the theory that prevailing usage is necessarily good usage must find their faith sorely tried in a democracy of eighty million newspaper readers. About once in a year the fashion of some grotesquely perverted idiom sweeps the country from Maine to California, and then settles down into an established usage. "Stand for" has completely ousted "tolerate" or "endure." "Equally as good as" was only confirmed in the favor of its votaries by the ironical quotation-marks of the *Nation*. If the *Nation* used it so often, it must be right. And now comes, "predicate." The old-fashioned text-books used to warn us not to confuse "predicate" with "predict." But about two years ago some amateur of "foine language" blundered into the employment of it as a synonym of "base." And now every proposition is "predicated upon" something, and every tub is predicated on its own bottom. I thought that the limit had been reached when the Chicago *Chronicle* the other day spoke of the lawyers in the Thaw case as introducing certain documents in order to "lay a predicate" for subsequent testimony. But worse was in store. The President of the United States in his letter of April 11 to the trustees of the Carnegie Institute writes: "The success of our Republic is predicated upon the high individual efficiency of the average citizen." Alas for Harvard! No wonder that the genial Professor Lounsbury bids us not to strive or cry, but bow to the will of the majority.

PAUL SHOREY.

University of Chicago, April 12.

HARRIMAN AND THE FUTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is perfectly true, as you imply in your diagnosis of the case of the Harrimans and the "would-be Harrimans," that it is idle to denounce Harriman the individual and ignore the fact that he is but a conspicuous representative of a large class who would follow in his footsteps if they could. But when we have given due attention to this class, may we not go a step farther and inquire into its social significance and also into the cause of this money-madness which has so infected our people as to become a national disease and revolutionize our ideals? According to the latest popular catechism, the chief end of man is to get rich; and the ideal of to-day is, not the man who has the highest intellectual and moral character, but the man who amasses the greatest fortune in the shortest time. His methods are of no particular consequence so long as they do not land him in jail. Now is this state of things something surprising and unaccountable or is it something that might have been expected to grow out of our social and political theories, and especially from the theory of the absolute equality of all individual social units? Some forty years ago an eminent Swiss writer, Henri Frédéric Amiel, speaking in his "Journal Intime," of the ideals of that time, said in substance and effect:

> The Americans are on the road to revolutionize these ideals by the introduction of the democratic principle of the equality of individuals in a general equality of functions. In this they are seeking to realize a higher social ideal, but the results will be disappointing if not disastrous. For when this principle of equality has been carried to its logical conclusion, and there is nothing left but a multitude of equal individuals—neither young nor old, neither men nor women, neither benefited nor benefactors—all social difference and distinction will turn upon money. The whole hierarchy will rest upon wealth; and as this wealth must, through the operation of individualism, necessarily be very unequally distributed, the inevitable result of this passion for equality will be, not what it is seeking, but the most hideous and most inhuman of inequalities. What a result! Plutolatry—the worship of wealth—the madness of gold. To it will then be confided the task of correcting false principles and their followers, and of shaping the destinies of a people.

The completeness with which we have fulfilled this prophecy seems to show that this disease is not sporadic, but the general and natural product of existing conditions. If this is so, perhaps this prophet can tell us more of our future. He continues:

> But such a régime cannot be permanent. Since plutocracy always rests upon inequality it is necessarily at war with the principle of equality and one or the other must give way. In this struggle it is easy to read the fate of plutocracy. The wealthy few who constitute a plutocracy can exist only through the sufferance and support of the impecunious many, and that support will be given only so long as it fails to comprehend its burdens. When it becomes fully cognizant of the inequalities by which it is burdened, it will withdraw and leave the principle of equality to again assert its sway by tearing down and clearing away the oppressive social fabric of inequality which has been erected by unbridled individualism while falsely flying the flag of individual equality. The ideal equality will then be sought in the opposite direction by circumscribing the activities of the individual in an iron framework of social organization and repression. Thus will be witnessed the strange and self-contradictory phenomenon of Anglo-Saxon individualism developing into and producing Latin Socialism.

Our chief, if not our only, hope lies in the possibility of a moral uplift which will eradicate or permanently put to shame this wolfish rapacity which thus strains the principle of individualism to the breaking point and forces the inevitable reaction. So long as we remain on the moral plane which measures all values by the money standard; which produces and countenances the Harrimans and the would-be Harrimans, and places in their hands great public franchises to be held and manipulated by them for their own purposes as private property, and which hails as the popular hero the most successful exploiter of the property of others—so long will the great social pendulum continue to swing back and forth between a harmful extreme of individualism on the one hand and an equally harmful extreme of collectivism on the other.

HERBERT L. BAKER.

Detroit, March 30.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It was doubtless from a chivalrous desire to compensate Cambridge for the persistent tendency of the press to ascribe all things to Oxford that your reviewer of Mr. H. W. Garrod's "Religion of All Good Men" (March 21, p. 270) described him as a Cambridge tutor. But in point of fact Mr. Garrod is a tutor of Merton, and Merton is the most ancient of the Oxford colleges, and unlike many, such as the neighboring institution from which I write, it has not even a double in Cambridge to account for the confusion. In view of Mr. Garrod's contentions, it may further be worth noting that Merton is the college of Mr. F. H. Bradley, and that it possesses at present the unique distinction of having not a single cleric on its governing body.

F. C. S. SCHILLER.

Corpus Christi College, Oxford, April 1.

Notes.

Valuable additions are preparing to the Cambridge English Classics (Putnams). Among these are Gascoigne's Poems, edited by Prof. J. W. Cunliffe of McGill University; the Poems of Giles and Phineas Fletcher, edited by F. S. Boas; Butler's "'Characters' and Other Prose Works," the greater part of which is now first printed, and Prior's "Dialogues of the Dead," both edited by A. R. Waller; Raleigh's "Shorter Works in Poetry and Prose" and Harrington's "Commonwealth of Oceana," edited by Dr. J. R. Tanner; Bunyan's "'Pilgrim's Progress' and 'Grace Abounding,'" edited by Dr. John Brown.

The facsimile edition of "The Pearl" is to be published forthwith for Professor Gollancz by Chatto & Windus. It is to be followed by a "Facsimile Series of Pre-Tudor Texts," also edited by Professor Gollancz.

To the new edition of Austin Dobson's "Henry Fielding" in the English Men of Letters Series, which Macmillans are publishing, a fourth appendix has been added, dealing with the fresh information in regard to Fielding's pedigree, his student life at Leyden, his first marriage, his family, his library, his will, and other minor matters.

The first two volumes of "The Cambridge History of English Literature," which were planned for publication this spring, will not come out until the autumn.

The best book of the kind we have seen, both for its simplicity and its comprehensiveness, is W. S. Booth's "Practical Guide for Authors" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). It is in reality an excellent "style-card" for printers and proof-readers, as well as a book of directions for writers.

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The excellent one-volume edition of the "Complete Poetical Works" of Keats, edited by H. Buxton Forman (noticed in our issue of January 10), has been reissued in cheaper form by the Oxford University Press (Henry Frowde). The type is the same as in the more expensive edition, but there are fewer leads between the lines, and the page is smaller.

"The Poems of Thomas Lovell Beddoes," edited by Ramsay Colles, in The Muses' Library of E. P. Dutton & Co., are practically complete, for this single and handy volume contains all his published poems, with the exception of ten, which may be found in the standard two-volume edition of Edmund Gosse. It is not conceivable that Beddoes will ever be popular, yet there will always be a few who will savor the peculiar mingling of the gruesome and the beautiful that runs through his dramas, and who will not be deterred by his incoherence. His most famous play, "Death's Jest Book," is best described as a mixture of Webster and John Ford, mitigated by "Festus" Bailey.

"The Great American Plateau," by T. Mitchell Prudden (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is purposely a simple story. He does not go deeply into matters geological, zoölogical, or ethnological. His portrayal of this desert land is essentially impressionistic—a glimpse of its formation, its scenery, its present and its past inhabitants, and the life of the stranger who, leaving behind civilization, dares enter its wastes. The author's style is most attractive; and pervading the book from cover to cover is the spirit of the ideal traveller, who, like the poet, is born, not made; and into his making must go the ingredients of enthusiasm, indomitable good temper, and indifference to all discomforts. We are delighted with the author's humorous description of crossing the Colorado, and greatly interested in his account of the present-day Indians and of the cliff-dwellers of the past. The book on the whole has the charm of freshness and reality, and it cannot fail to fulfil the author's hope "that some other town dweller may be led to wander away from the beaten tracks into the serene and inspiring solitudes of this land of wide horizons."

The *American Journal of Philology* is not designed to amuse an idle hour, but occasionally Professor Gildersleeve gets in a bit of picturesque writing in his paragraphs of "Brief Mention." Thus, in the present issue of the magazine, he has this happy characterization of Isocrates: "For my own part, in spite of sundry flippant utterances, I have long valued Isocrates as a touchstone for the appreciation of what may be called the physical charm of the Greek language." The phrase is apt. And it may be added that any one who fails to feel this "physical charm" of Isocrates's balanced periods is partly color-blind to style. Professor Gildersleeve then relates his experiences as a young student in Berlin, when he inscribed himself for Bekker's lectures on Isocrates. What was his surprise to find the smallest auditorium of the university assigned to the course. "At the appointed hour the great man came in scowling, plunged his face into his notes, and began to read with scant comment a lot of *variæ lectiones*. I was quite unprepared for that sort of lecture, and after a few times fell out, as I believe the rest did also, to the joy of the old scholar, who was thus liberated from his task."

An addition to the bibliography of periodical literature has been compiled by Prof. H. O. Severance of the University of Missouri under the title, "A Guide to Periodicals and Serials of the United States and Canada." It is arranged in alphabetical order, with the name and place of publisher and price of subscription. The material is also given in classified order, so that any one wishing to make up a list of serials on a particular subject has the material at hand. The list aims to be complete for all periodicals of importance. The purpose is to make the Guide an annual.

The parts of Prof. Morris Jastrow's "Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens" (Giessen: A. Töpelman) continue to appear at the rate of about one in nine months. The tenth part, now before us, consists of the major portion of chapters nineteen and twenty. There are five or six more chapters to follow, besides a portfolio of illustrations. Three years ago it was announced that the work would probably be complete in eleven parts. Now it is expected to contain about fifteen parts. Beginning as a translation of Jastrow's "Religion of Babylonia and Assyria," in the series of Hand-books on the History of Religions, it has developed into an altogether new work. Almost nothing of the corresponding chapters of the English original is retained in the two chapters which now lie before us, Professor Jastrow having entirely rewritten these chapters, which deal with oracles, omens, and the like, as the result of new discoveries of material and of his own further studies. The fact that there is a demand for the translation into German of this and other similar works is an indication of the changing conditions of scholarship in this country. Thirty years ago American students in such fields depended almost entirely upon German works, and foreign scholars never thought of consulting, much less of translating, American books.

A language atlas (*Sprachatlas*) of the Russian empire is being prepared by a special commission of the Imperial Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg, under the direction of the academician, F. C. Korsch. The coöperation of scholars and learned bodies throughout the empire has been secured. Valuable material has also been obtained by the journeys of various investigators, especially by N. N. Durnovo of the Moscow University.

The annual report of the Pennsylvania Home Teaching Society and Circulating Library for the Blind for 1906 shows an increase of 37 per cent. in the number of blind books circulated. One hundred and fifty-nine new readers were registered, making a total of 1,121. The circulation reached 9,289 volumes, of which 2,220 were distributed directly by the teachers of the society and 4,980 were sent by mail to all parts of the United States and Territories. Three teachers are regularly employed to teach the reading of embossed type.

The Mikado has given permission to found a Catholic university in Tokio, to be manned and managed by the Jesuit Fathers. According to *Le Catholique Irlandais*, the professors have already been selected, and are nearly all either English, Irish, or American. The Mikado has also given the Jesuit Fathers permission to erect a new church in the Japanese capital city.

The improvement of rural education in England is advocated in a recent report of the Education Committee of the County Councils Association. The report suggests that the study of geography should begin with the physical features of the district, and of history with the events associated with some local battlefield, ancient church, or castle. Arithmetic should introduce as much out-of-door measurement of land, crops, etc., as possible, and the pupils should also ascertain, by weighing and measuring the weight of wheat, barley, and oats per bushel, etc. The problems of the class room should bear on rural life and work, as household accounts, the value of local products, interest on savings bank deposits, cost of cultivation, and the number of cabbage plants required per acre. Manual work should include the cultivation of a vegetable plot, the making of useful things such as hencoops and garden frames, and the boys should also learn to mend a gate by a model. The report has obvious bearings on our own problems of rural education.

Students who go abroad to use the Bibliothèque Nationale at Paris will be glad to hear that the new administrator, Henry Marcel, has quickened the delivery of books by the introduction of *transporteurs automatiques*.

The death is announced of the Danish churchman and historian, Frederik Nielsen, whose "History of the Papacy in the Nineteenth Century," in its English version, was recently reviewed in the *Nation*. Bishop Nielsen was born in Aalborg, in 1846, and after studying in Germany took up his work as preacher in Copenhagen in 1873, and at the same time as *Privatdozent* in the university. In both professions he rose by gradual steps to the highest eminence. He kept closely in touch with religious movements in England. Among his many historical and theological works, besides his "History of the Papacy," are studies of "Freemasonry and Christianity," "John Wesley and the English Established Church," "Charles Kingsley and Christian Socialism in England," and "Edward Irving."

EDWIN L. GODKIN.

Life and Letters of Edwin Lawrence Godkin. Edited by Rollo Ogden. 2 vols., pp. 322, 278. New York: The Macmillan Co. $4.00 net.

The influence of Edwin L. Godkin upon American life and thought is something that must be pronounced unique not only in the history of journalism in America, but in that of journalism anywhere. The very fact that no definite and concrete embodiment of its results can be pointed to as in any adequate sense the measure of that influence, only emphasizes its uniqueness. Not that such concrete embodiments are wanting. The cause of civil service reform owes to Mr. Godkin, above all other men, the impetus that was essential to its obtaining a foothold and the support that was necessary to its advancement in the pioneer days; in that liberalizing of poli-

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tical thought which led to the closing of the disgraceful chapter of carpet-bag rule in the South, he was a powerful factor; in the cause of sane and honest finance he was a most formidable and effective fighter; in the development of the spirit of independence as against servile attachment to party, it would be difficult to measure the magnitude of his service; in the single fact of the defeat of Blaine and the election of Cleveland, which not only his splendid work in the campaign, but his teaching for a score of years before, did so much to bring about, might be found a not unworthy monument of his labors. But no one who grew up under the influence of the *Nation* in its first two decades, or who, though of maturer years, continuously felt its power in those times, would regard any or all of these achievements as more than a mere symptom of the kind of thing that Mr. Godkin accomplished for him and for the country. There have been journalists and orators who, identified with some great cause, have achieved results that stand out more definitely and boldly than anything that can be ascribed to Mr. Godkin. Cobden or Bright in the establishment of free trade, Garrison or Greeley in the abolition of slavery, occur at once to the mind. But where are we to find an example of a man to whose name the label of no one cause, the leadership of no one party or sect, the advocacy of no one dogma, is attached, and yet whose influence as a journalist was, for a quarter of a century, the most potent moral and intellectual force in the life of a great nation?

There are, to be sure, those who will doubt the justice of this estimate. The *Nation* never counted its readers by the hundred thousand. Its subscribers and readers were scattered over the great continental area of our country, and would have cut but a small figure in the census of her thirty or fifty million inhabitants. But there was scarce a community which did not count its one or two or a dozen faithful disciples of the *Nation;* men and women—aye, and youths and maidens—to whom the regular coming of that visitor was the great intellectual and spiritual event of the week. And alongside of this profound and penetrating influence on thousands of earnest natures, young and old, and together with the comfort and sustenance the *Nation* was giving to men of cultivation and of learning throughout the land, must be reckoned the influence it exercised, at one remove, upon the whole people, through the columns of the newspapers of the country. Editors might not say much about the *Nation*, but they read it; and they were, both consciously and unconsciously, deeply affected by it. To appreciate fully the vast and continuing effect of the currents thus set in motion both among individuals and in the press requires, perhaps, a vivid imagination; but it can only be a defective imagination that fails to recognize that the effect has been very great.

That the *Nation*, and this extraordinary influence which emanated from it, was the product of one man's personality and power is certain, in spite of the fact that Mr. Godkin enlisted in its service a large part of all that was best in the world of American letters and scholarship. Never was there a more striking illustration of the remarkable phenomenon, upon which Bagehot has commented so instructively, of the contagion of quality which makes all the writing in a journal of marked character seem the work of a single hand; whatever excellence each of the writers for the *Nation* may have possessed in his own right, there was superadded to it the special quality which took possession of them when they were contributing to Mr. Godkin's paper. Professor Norton, in one of the letters quoted in Mr. Ogden's volumes, after saying that his own share in making the *Nation* possible was his "best claim to the gratitude of posterity" adds: "And, after all, *You* are the *Nation*"; and in saying this he but expressed what everybody felt who knew the *Nation* in its early years.

What were the personal qualities, what the intellectual and literary gifts, that made such an achievement possible? A great store of delightful material, of varied and fascinating interest, bearing on these points, is to be found in these volumes; but in some sense the question requires no answer. Mr. Godkin's qualities were manifest in his work. It was a man, not a writer, we were listening to; it was a man, not a journalist, who stirred our pulses and provoked delicious laughter, or aroused indignant scorn, or threw flashes of penetrating light upon any question of politics or morals or manners that he discussed. The explanation of his unique power was that he possessed a unique combination of qualities; but this combination of qualities requires no research to discover. A keen speculative thinker, his analytic powers never dominated him; they were more than matched by the moral fervor and the human intensity of his nature. Earnest and intent as he was in the preaching of his gospel, his trenchant wit and abounding humor made his sermons the very antipodes of sermonizing. With a command of biting satire that has rarely been equalled, this quality, which so easily tempts either to flippancy or to cynicism, never led him astray. With a great knowledge both of books and of the world, he was as far as possible removed from pedantry; heaviness and he were many miles asunder. These are qualities that cannot be assumed; no man, by taking thought, can add so much as an inch of them to his stature. They are of the very fibre of the man; one feels an absolute assurance that to know his life is but to know him more fully as the man we have already known by the work that has delighted us and that has won our admiration and gratitude.

The volumes Mr. Ogden has made, chiefly out of Mr. Godkin's personal correspondence, his letters to the London *Daily News* and his recorded reminiscences, amply confirm this assurance. We are introduced to no new figure, we get no "sidelights," no revelations—and we do not miss them in the least. It is no new acquaintance that we are forming, but a better and closer acquaintance with the man who made the *Nation* and edited the *Evening Post*. His work in the latter position will make by itself a notable chapter, when a philosophic history of American journalism comes to be written. The shrewd and genial man of the world, the penetrating and discriminating observer, the keen dissecter of character, personal and national, the hater of sham and despiser of pretentious mediocrity, the lover of life and humor and reality—this is the figure that is disclosed to us in a hundred interesting aspects of human intercourse and of literary activity. Those, however, who look for much in the way of "psychological development" will be sadly disappointed; fortunately, there is still a very respectable minority who can get on quite comfortably without it. The fact is that the Godkin who is presented to us as the youthful Crimean War correspondent of the *Daily News*—one may almost say the Godkin of whom we get a few striking glimpses in his school and college days—is essentially the same as the Godkin whom we have known, in this country, at the height of his powers. With full justification does Mr. Ogden apply to him what was said of another: "Though he writ as young as Cowley, he had no puerilities; and his earliest productions . . . may make gray authors blush."

Mr. Godkin was born in Ireland in 1831, and was deeply moved, in his early youth, by the agitation for Home Rule. The great revolutionary upheaval on the Continent came at the most impressionable period of his life. He wrote a "History of Hungary" in 1852, and the work, whatever may be its defects, presents, as Mr. Ogden says, "abundant premonitions, both in thought and style, of the man that was to come. Indignation at injustice, hatred of oppression, love of liberty, belief in self-government, blazed in the youth as they burned in the man." Less reminiscent of his later work, but only because the subject-matter is so different, were the *Daily News* letters from the seat of war. Here we have vivid descriptions of men and events, acute comments on military situations, picturesque and humorous accounts of strange peculiarities of manners and customs; nor are there wanting perilous adventures, by flood and field, on the part of the young correspondent himself. One cannot help feeling, in reading these specimens, that a collection of all of Mr. Godkin's Crimean letters would make a most readable volume, despite the passage of time. An interval of only a year separates his Crimean War correspondence from his arrival in the country of which he was to become so illustrious a citizen. He landed at New York in November, 1856; and, though he intended from the beginning to make our country his permanent home, his first work here was the writing of a series of letters to the *Daily News*, largely from the South, of which we get a number of extremely interesting examples in these volumes. It is a marked feature of them—over and above that same graphic quality which characterized the letters from the East—that the crudities of American civilization and the absurdities and vices of American political life were laid bare with something of the same incisive art that was afterwards to do such savage execution in the *Nation;* while at the same time deep-seated sympathy with America and confident hope for her future are plainly manifest. How genuine was this sympathy was soon effectively demonstrated. In discussing the Trent affair, Mr. Godkin sent broadside after broadside into the British position, though the editorial columns of the *Daily News* were on the

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other side; and this was but a premonition of the splendid service which his letters throughout the Civil War did to the upholding of the Union cause in England. Writing to Mr. Godkin in 1865, George P. Marsh, our minister to Italy, said: "I am fully aware of the vast services you have rendered our national cause by your very able letters in the *Daily News*." As in the case of the Crimean letters, the reader's only regret, here again, is that he has not the opportunity of reading them all. Almost immediately upon the close of the Civil War came the establishment of the *Nation;* and henceforward, with the exception of one or two striking letters to the *Daily News*, on general subjects, and of some of Mr. Godkin's written recollections, the collected matter in these volumes consists chiefly of personal correspondence.

Both in the selection and in the arrangement of all this material, Mr. Ogden has performed his task with admirable taste and skill. One cannot, to be sure, say how much more might to advantage have been included; but there is no difficulty in pronouncing that not a line that is given should have been omitted. There is hardly a page that is not full of interest, and much of it is of fascinating interest. We have Mr. Godkin in his relations with Norton, and Olmsted, and Lowell, and W. P. Garrison, and, in lesser measure, with a score of other men of light and leading; in his correspondence with several charming women whose affection and admiration formed one of the bright features of his life; we get, but with great reserve, some glimpses of the sadness with which his life was more than once visited by the hand of death. Both his first marriage, in 1859, and his second marriage, in 1884, were unions of rare and complete happiness; but his domestic life is touched upon only in the briefest possible way. The letters are so arranged, neither altogether chronologically nor altogether by subject-matter, as to avoid both that jerkiness which is apt to be produced by the one arrangement and that feeling of mechanicalness which is apt to result from the other. The connecting portions of the work, in the shape of narrative and comment, supplied by Mr. Ogden, are confined to modest proportions, but are both interesting and illuminating. Altogether, the book is one which all who have loved Mr. Godkin will prize, and which all to whom he is only a name will read with equal pleasure and profit.

It is the fate of those who serve their generation as Godkin did to get little of the reward—such as it is—of either contemporary or posthumous fame; the work of a journalist, however splendid, cannot possibly be, in its embodied form, a "possession for all time." Its spirit, when it is of the lofty quality of Mr. Godkin's work, survives through a thousand agencies that it has set going; but the work itself is not preserved, and the memory of its author is apt soon to become little more than the shadow of a name. It is, therefore, no small service to the present generation to set before it, "in his habit as he lived," with his warm and loyal friendships, his playfulness and his affection, his bitterness and his humor, his joys and his sorrows, such a "man and leader of men" as Edwin L. Godkin.

CURRENT FICTION.

Partners of Providence. By Charles D. S. Stewart. New York: The Century Co.

In the five hundred and odd pages of this rambling account of river life on the Missouri and the Mississippi there is not a false note, a sentence out of key, or—rare quality in books of popular humor—one second of doubtful taste. Like Huckleberry Finn, Sam Daly is drifting down stream, hunting for a mislaid comrade. Where Mark Twain dropped the chronicle of Western steamboat life, Mr. Stewart has taken it up, fixing for a moment the changing customs of the period which came after central grinding mills appeared in the cane country, and before New Orleans covered her gutters.

No student of child life has been happier in catching the ardor, the inconsequence, of the average small boy, with his queer pockets of mental confusion and his equally disconcerting minutes of illumination. Mr. Stewart tells his story at great length, with every possible divagation and detail, but it is a genuine wealth of detail of which no one would willingly spare a word. It is hard to say exactly in what the charm of his humor consists, except that he has the apt and natural comic word and point of attack, as some comedians have the indescribable mirth-provoking gesture. He understands his little boy as few have done since Mr. Howells in "A Boy's Town"—the wary, inquiring, part-savage creature, taking half the universe for granted and thinking himself into a fever over matters of small consequence. "Partners of Providence," however, is entirely free from the pseudo-scientific taint; there is no conscious or unconscious effort to identify Sam with the childhood of the race, or otherwise turn his extremely human and personal little figure into an edifying generalization.

The whole bears the mark of first-hand observation, made with a delightful and unhurried humor. Books about the Mississippi call for leisure, for time to dally with irrelevant incident, to wind forward and back like the bends of the river itself. The episode of the roustabouts' chicken dinner may not be "structural," but without it the reader would be many laughs the poorer. The part played by Aunt Jemima's flatiron is as racy as anything told by Tom Sawyer. Any isolated bit does scant justice to Mr. Stewart's fun. It is too much made up of a whole point of view and a happy aptness of phrase, a sympathetic understanding of small things, to lend itself to quotations; and its greatest achievement is to travel over so well worn a road and yet produce something as unhackneyed as if the Mississippi Basin were a fresh ground for fiction.

The New Chronicles of Rebecca. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Of "The New Chronicles of Rebecca" it need only be said that it is absolutely certain to enthrall those people to whom such bits as the following appear in the light of humor:

"Written language is for poems and graduations and occasions like this—like a kind of Sunday-go-to-meeting dress that you wouldn't go blueberrying in.

Thirza, you mustn't chew gum at a missionary meeting; it isn't polite nor holy.

Rebecca saves a baby from the poorhouse. She organizes the little girls of her village as home missionaries, only to be routed at their first attempt upon the village cynic. She writes many poems (all of which are quoted) in the style of rustic obituaries, and keeps a diary (also quoted at length) which suggests a question. Would the readers who enjoy this artless product be pleased, or over-stimulated, if chance introduced them to Marjorie Fleming, and gave an opportunity for comparison between its genuine oddities and the somewhat labored quaintness of Rebecca? The present volume conducts Rebecca to her eighteenth year, and closes, or, rather, is left sufficiently ajar, to permit a vista of indefinitely prolonged future chronicles.

The Miracle Worker. By Gerald Maxwell. Boston: John W. Luce & Co.

Mr. Maxwell makes his hero an Afghan prince, and does well, since only upon an Oriental could sit gracefully such powers in occultism. He makes him a Leipzig doctor of medicine, and thus gives plausibility to almost unearthly scientific attainment. He makes him a vivisectionist, and thus facile in the beneficences of cruelty. Finally he makes him a winning youth with the doctor's passion for rescue, and thus an easy candidate for feminine favor. He is a combination of Dr. Isaacs and Daniel Deronda with Svengali. He embarks upon the impossible, and failing, has recourse to the yet more impossible. To have him return to his princely surroundings in Afghanistan at the last with his red-haired German-nurse wife, is logical; he is too eerie a being for Europe. The author, however, does not tell his tale eerily in the least. All is as calm and practical as an inventory; the nocturnal journeys, the anæsthetics, the antiseptics. Hypnotism rages, but soap and hot water are not forgotten.

However mild its manner, it is a wild story of endeavor to save the life and looks of a woman who has been frightfully burned at a Christmas tree; of a parallel attempt to save from execution a poor weak woman criminal; of a startling likeness between the two, and so on and on to gruesome concludings. It is ingenious and up to a certain point interesting, but credulity and sensibility finally rebel. The exit to the Orient is rather finely dramatic, and the Jesuitical turn by which the doctor's immunity from discovery is made to hinge on the success of missionary work in the slopes of the Hindu Kush is almost satanically clever.

Phantom Wires. By Arthur Stringer. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Those who enjoy melodrama will have a treat in Mr. Stringer's latest book. The plot is constructed with skill and worked out with more than ordinary ability. The struggles between Durkin and MacNutt are strongly reminiscent of those between Sherlock Holmes and Professor Moriarty. But there is this difference: Conan Doyle gave us the strugle of the criminal with the representative of society; Mr. Stringer depicts the conflict between two criminals.

Indeed, Mr. Stringer seems to have a penchant for the apotheosis of the criminal; he paints the underworld *couleur de rose*. He has rare descriptive powers, and can create

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an atmosphere or a background with artistic skill. One can but regret that he does not choose worthier themes for the exercise of his unusual talent.

The Giant's Strength. By Basil King. New York. Harper & Bros.

The casual reader of "The Giant's Strength" will be tempted in the course of the third chapter to turn to the title-page to convince himself that he has not inadvertently picked up a copy of the *Congressional Record* and opened it at a debate on railway rebates. We have most of us become reconciled to having our magazines turned over to the "muck-raker"; but some of us still have a feeling of resentment when that indefatigable individual claims the novel for his own. Surely the reader in search of innocent amusement has some rights.

But the fiction lover who forces his way through that third chapter will be repaid by a story of considerable dramatic power. The theme is the love of a daughter of a Trust magnate for the son of a victim of her father's wicked rebates. Her love is returned, and her lover's strength of character is at least equal to that of her father. The conflict between the wills of these two strong men culminates in the eighteenth chapter in a scene of unusual dramatic effect. The tale, unlike most of its class, ends happily.

Neither the father nor the lover is convincingly drawn, but the slow development of the daughter Paula's character under the stress of trial and trouble is admirable.

Midsummer Madness. Translated from the Spanish of Emilia Pardo Bazan by Amparo Loring. Boston: L. C. Clark Publishing Co.

Señora Pardo Bazan is one of the most accomplished and versatile writers in the world, equally brilliant as critic and as novelist, and a principal champion of realism in Spain. The present novel (rendered in admirably vigorous and idiomatic English) is a delightful realistic *jeu d'esprit.* Its buoyancy, its daring, its latinity lift one along in a pleasant flow of somewhat apprehensive spirits to a surprisingly innocent event. The two very human and amiable, if indiscreet, young persons in question are presented with a realism which it would be idle to dismiss as photographic or commonplace. One's heart warms to these grown-up scapegraces who feelingly remind us what we are; or what in certain moods we may be. Indeed, the little tale is conceived in a spirit of tender gayety which marks it for that rare thing, a work of true humor.

Under the Harrow. By Ellis Meredith. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

One can but admire audacity, no matter how far short of the goal its ambitious arrows fall; but one admires audacity the more when it is tempered with discretion. The older generation of readers, who remember Murger's "Scènes de la Vie de Bohème" and Du Maurier's "Trilby," will find Mr. Meredith's little story of Bohemian life in New York insipid and futile; but it will not be without interest and encouragement for the younger generation. There is nothing in Mr. Meredith's Bohemia to bring a blush to the cheek of a young person; none of its doors need be bolted to keep out Mr. Comstock; all the dwellers there are unquestionable geniuses. Of course, the captious may question the realism of such a description of Bohemia; but this is a matter of little moment; as no one is likely to take the book seriously. The female characters may be said to be drawn, however badly; but the male characters are at most only vaguely suggested.

The book is full of encouragement for writers and artists who have not yet arrived; but is it necessarily ill-natured to question whether such encouragement is needed? Murger told us long ago that the only claim the majority of the dwellers in Bohemia have to the title of Bohemians is their undoubted possession of Bohemian vices. If that is still true to-day, they need rather than encouragement an earnest exhortation to depart from Bohemia.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

A Bibliography of Oliver Wendell Holmes. By George B. Ives. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Another of the series of Bibliographies of American Authors which Houghton, Mifflin & Company have under way now appears in the "Bibliography of Oliver Wendell Holmes," compiled by George B. Ives of the staff of the Riverside Press. Holmes was such a fruitful author, his muse lending itself so easily to commemorate the birthday of a famous contemporary, or the centennial of some important event, that tracing all the offspring of his pen would have seemed next to impossible. Mr. Ives's work, however, has been done well. G. W. Cooke's "Bibliography of Lowell" was better than that of Hawthorne, and this of Holmes seems to be, in completeness and method, a distinct advance upon Mr. Cooke's effort. The Hawthorne, Lowell, and James have been printed on but one side of the leaf; the Holmes, however, is more extensive, filling 322 pages, which, if printed like the others, would have made the volume too bulky. A few blank leaves are bound in at the end for additions or emendations. An important innovation, for a bibliography, is the introduction of several entire poems which have not previously been collected, thus giving the compilation a literary flavor, and making it, perhaps, more interesting to the general reader. But the bibliography, while extensive and remarkably full, does not recognize adequately the wants of the collector of first editions of Holmes. The matter is here, but scattered, and in part hidden by the record of later editions. This record, though of small interest to the collector, increases the value of the book to the student.

After the short title list of Dr. Holmes's published books comes an alphabetical list of single titles, filling, with examples, extracts, and comments, 115 pages. Then follows the chronological list of single publications, whether leaflets or books, which, with the exception of the first and the two last entries, are entirely by Holmes. The first entry is "The Harbinger," generally regarded as Holmes's first volume of poems, though one-third only was by him; Park Benjamin supplied Part I., and John O. Sargent Part III. The last two entries are medical works edited by Holmes, which are put in this section because there is no other suitable place. Then, after the Collected Works, filling two pages, come the lists of selections and compilations, books containing letters by Holmes, Holmes's contributions to the *Atlantic Monthly*, and biographies and criticisms. Following these are the records of sales at auction, an important appendix of items about which information was secured too late for insertion in its proper place, and a (not very useful) index.

Holmes's earliest printed verses seem to have been in the *Collegian*, of February, 1830. To identify positively his first appearance in a book is impossible. "The Gleaner, or Selections in Prose and Poetry from the Periodical Press," published at the office of the *New England Galaxy*, 1830, contained five of his poems, one of which had appeared in the *Collegian* and the others in the *Amateur*. In Morse's Life of Holmes is a letter by Holmes, then a junior at Harvard, March 28, 1828, in which he says:

> I smoke most devoutly, and sing most unmusically, have written poetry for annual, and seen by literary bantlings swathed in green silk and reposing in the drawing-room.

This "annual" may have been "The Token" for 1828, which was bound in silk; but all the contributions were anonymous and no poem therein was ever claimed by Holmes. In the absence of positive evidence, "The Gleaner" may be set down as the first book to which Holmes contributed.

Additions to Mr. Ives's lists are certain to come from time to time. Other volumes containing letters are likely to turn up; and Holmes's fondness for printing poems in leaflet or broadside makes it probable that a few of these fugacious scraps may be discovered. A copy may yet be found of the broadside. "Old Ironsides," which was circulated in Washington in 1830, and which seems to have disappeared entirely.

Mr. Ives has not made wholly clear the various issues of Holmes's "Oration delivered before the city authorities of Boston on the Fourth of July, 1863." There were two distinct printings in large type, quarto. The first, twelve copies only (besides an unknown number "which the printers were allowed to preserve as typographical specimens"), was undoubtedly printed before the oration was delivered, and, as Holmes says in an introductory note, "for the sole purpose of rendering easier its public delivery." The types were evidently kept standing, and, after delivery, a few changes were made and some additional copies struck off. Both of these varieties have the imprint of John E. Farwell & Co. There were also at least two issues in small type, octavo. Besides those with the Ticknor & Fields imprint, as described by Mr. Ives, some copies, in cloth, as well as in paper, have the name of John E. Farwell & Co. on the title. Of course, the manuscript of "The Chambered Nautilus" offered at the Whipple sale was not "the original manuscript," as stated by Mr. Ives, but a copy written off by Dr. Holmes as a Christmas remembrance for Mrs. Whipple. The inscription reads, "For Mrs. Whipple," instead of "For Mr. Whipple."

Hugh A. Morrison has compiled
calls "A Preliminary Check List of A
ican Almanacs, 1639-1800," which is prin.

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ed by the Library of Congress. It is impossible to exaggerate the importance of this feature of early American imprints, for the Almanac occupied a unique position in the colonial household, and its thin trickle of literary expression watered many an unpromising field. An Evans or a Franklin had followers, and some of the products are of permanent value. Pennsylvania was the largest manufacturer of almanacs (fifty pages of the list), with Massachusetts second (thirty-four pages), and New York third (twenty-one pages). As a preliminary list this issue shows great care and accuracy on the part of the compiler.

On April 22 to 25, the Merwin-Clayton Sales Company offers Part 4 of the library of Dr. Kopetschny of Jersey City. This portion includes bibliography, biography, music, natural history (some fine and rare works with colored plates), poetry, and drama.

On April 24 and 25, Stan. V. Henkels at Davis & Harvey's in Philadelphia, will sell Part 4 of ex-Gov. Pennypacker's library. This is his collection on general American history. The first hundred lots comprise American genealogies. Books on the Revolution make up an important section, the list of Tory tracts printed by Rivington, New York, being one of the most extensive offered in a long time. Of earlier books one of the most valuable is David Pietersz de Vries's "Korte Historiæl ende Journæls æntepckeninge Van verscheyden Voyagens," 1655, which contains an interesting description of New Netherlands. Other important books are: Edwards's "Materials towards a History of the American Baptists, 1770-1792," vols. i. and ii., all published and very scarce; Loudon's "Narratives of Outrages committed by the Indians," 1808, extremely rare; Livingston's "Review of the Military Operations in North America," New York, 1760; George Keith's "Presbyterian and Independent Visible Churches in New England," 1691; Ward's "Simple Cobler of Aggawam," 1647; and Rogers's "Concise Account of North America," 1765. There are several valuable narratives of early Western travels, among them: Zadok Cramer's "Navigator," Pittsburgh, 1811; Cuming's "Tour to the Western County," Pittsburgh, 1810; Fisher's "Account of the Travels of Lewis and Clark," Baltimore, 1812; Gass's "Journal," Pittsburgh, 1807; Michaux's Travels to the Westward of the Alleghany Mountains," 1805; Pattie's "Personal Narrative," Cincinnati, 1833; and Pike's "Expeditions to the Sources of the Mississippi," 1810. Part of a manuscript orderly-book, kept by Gen. Henry Dearborn at Valley Forge, January 13 to February 4, 1778, is also interesting.

Collectors of books and prints relating to the French Revolution and the Napoleonic period will enjoy an unusual opportunity at the dispersal, April 24 and 25, by Libbie & Co., Boston, of the library of A. D. S. Bell of Cambridge. With few exceptions the books are in English. Many unusual early American publications are included. Among illustrated works are the "Description de l'Égypte," 1822-29, 37 vols.; Ireland's "Life of Bonaparte," 4 vols., with 27 folding colored plates by George Cruikshank; Combe's Hudibrastic "Life of Napoleon," 1815, with 30 colored plates by George Cruikshank; Mudford's "Campaign of Waterloo," and Nicholson's "Wars of the Revolution." The collection of Napoleonic caricatures by Gillray, Rowlandson, Cruikshank, and other artists is extensive.

At an auction of books of George Gray, held by Sotheby, Wilkinson & Hodge, London, March 20 and 21, the following prices were paid: Z. Boyd's "Last Battel of the Soul in Death," Edinburgh, 1629, £55; autograph letter of Burns to John Ballantyne, January 14, 1787, £141; the Kilmarnock Burns, 1786, short copy, £260; 101 uncut leaves of the same edition, £120; Shakespeare's Fourth Folio, 1685, Knight & Saunders imprint, £772; Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound," 1820, £27.

At an auction at Dowell's, Edinburgh, March 26, the first draft of Burns's "Thou Liberty, Thou Art My Theme," brought £33; a copy of the first Edinburgh edition of Burns's "Poems, Chiefly in the Scottish Dialect," with a few blanks filled up by the poet, £60.

History of the Italian Republics in the Middle Ages. By J. C. K. Sismondi. Entirely recast and supplemented in the light of subsequent historical research, with a memoir of the author, by William Boulting. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.

Exclusive of introduction, chronological tables, and index, this volume contains 799 pages, with an average of over 600 words to the page; and its excellence is well-nigh as phenomenal as its cheapness. There is no other book in the English language which covers anything like the same ground; and Mr. Boulting's assertion that he has entirely recast and supplemented the work of Sismondi in the light of subsequent historical research, is no idle boast. The volume in all its larger aspects is entirely up to date, as witness the ruthless destruction of the silly old fable that feudalism never took root in Italy. On the contrary, as our author justly remarks (p. 25), "Italy is the country where feudalism in its essence most flourished and longest survived"; and we welcome this statement all the more warmly that some of the most authoritative among our English contemporaries still adhere to the ancient heresy (*e. g.*, The London *Athenæum* of December 31, 1904, page 900). On the other hand, as was almost inevitable in attempting to cover so wide a field, Mr. Boulting has occasionally fallen into errors of detail; and, since his book is likely to go through several editions, we venture, in the hope that this admirable work may ultimately be rendered perfect, to point out certain slips in regard to the history of Central Italy, and in particular that of Tuscany and Umbria. Other critics may help in other fields.

Mr. Boulting has divided his volume into eight books, representing various periods of Italian history; each book being again divided into numerous sections and subsections, a fair proportion of which deal separately with separate republics—Rome, Milan, Venice, Pisa, Genoa, Florence, Siena. This method, although it entails a certain amount of repetition, has undoubted advantages. We are, however, by no means convinced that all these cities deserve to have their histories recorded in detail to the end of the chapter. Take, for example, Pisa and Siena. What have they to teach us, after the end of the thirteenth century, concerning any of the larger issues of Italian history? It is perfectly true that they had their period of vigorous life, and that each of them held the hegemony of Tuscany in her turn; but it is also true that, after the battle of Colle di Val d'Elsa in the case of Siena, and of Meloria in that of Pisa, the history of Florence is the history of Tuscany, and comprehends that of the neighboring communes. By the history of Florence we, of course, mean her political history. Artistically, the history of Siena continues to be of primary importance for another two hundred years; while her chronicles, though they deal mainly with intramural discords, remain a joy for ever, vivid and picturesque as any in Italy. Nevertheless, from the last quarter of the thirteenth century she was only a pawn in the great game of Italian politics, and a pawn which was generally pushed about the board by Florence. In fine, the substance of our contention is that both she and Pisa should have been treated with greater fulness while they were greater than Florence, and then no longer dealt with separately.

With regard to Pisa, Mr. Boulting tells us (p. 93) that "there are so many gaps in her history that it is difficult to trace the development of her municipal self-government." We will not dispute his statement, but we believe that he might see his way to filling some of those gaps if he would consult Professor Volpe's learned works, and especially his "Studi sulle istituzioni Comunali a Pisa (Città e contado, Consuli e Potestà) sec. xii.-xiii." In the case of Siena no such difficulty exists, and thanks to the indefatigable labors of Professor L. Zdekauer, we have ample materials for the reconstruction both of her *vita privata* and *vita pubblica* in the days of her greatest triumphs. Yet the sections which Mr. Boulting devotes to Siena of the thirteenth century are both colorless and inaccurate. He attributes the foundation of the Sienese Cathedral to the year 1249, though Professor Langton Douglas, in his "History of Siena," avouches excellent reasons for accepting the statement of Malavolti that the work was actually begun in 1245. Then he follows Villani in providing Siena with a gate she never possessed (p. 277); he sets Asciano on the Roman road, and asserts (p. 281) that it was taken by the Florentines between 1267 and 1282—apparently in 1274—whereas it really fell to their arms in 1234 (Tommasi, "Historia," ad annum); while, finally, he tells us that Siena was Ghibelline in 1307 (p. 290)—mistakes, all of them, which he could hardly have made had he studied the history of Siena from Sienese documents and Sienese chronicles.

These, however, are matters of comparatively little moment, and it is not until we turn our attention to the Umbrian communes that we are aware of what we can only regard as a serious lacuna in any work which purports to be a History of the Italian Republics; for Mr. Boulting scarcely deems those communes worthy of notice. It is true that, on page 66, we are informed that Orvieto was "specially early in development"—a dictum which is directly opposed to the opinion of the greatest living authority on Umbrian history (see

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L. Fumi, "Codice Diplomatico d'Orvieto," pp. iii.-iv.); but Orvieto was, after all, a town of secondary importance, and we have a far more serious ground of complaint in the matter of Perugia. Since Perugia, during the first half of the fourteenth century, exercised considerable influence in Italian politics, she should, we contend, have been singled out for separate treatment. Mr. Boulting, on the contrary, looks upon her as a negligible quantity, declaring (p. 446) that "owing to the occasional presence of the Papal Court, she had never acquired the same degree of liberty as the other cities of the Papal States." Where he got such information we are unable to imagine, unless, indeed, he has been misled by the inaccurate "Story of Perugia" in Dent's Mediæval Towns Series. Perugia at this period was unquestionably as free as any commune of Central Italy, and, next to Florence, was the most powerful. From the first her relations with the Papacy had been rather those of an ally than of a vassal (Bartoli, "Storia di Perugia"), and, after the removal of the Papal See to Avignon, its rectors were flouted, its cities usurped, and its authority openly set at naught. Yet the alliance continued, because Perugia alone upheld the Guelf cause in Umbria; and but for Perugia the Papal States would probably have been lost forever. It follows, therefore, that if the history of the Papal States is important, that of Perugia is important too. We recommend Mr. Boulting to study such works as Fumi's "Eretici e Ribelli nell' Umbria dal 1320 al 1330," "I Registri del Ducato di Spoleto," by the same author; Antonelli's "Vicende della Dominazione Pontificia nel Patrimonio di S. Pietro in Tuscia," Calisse's "I Prefetti Di Vico," and, last but not least, Filippini's "La Riconquista dello Stato della Chiesa per opera di Egidio Albornoz." They will, we trust, convince him that he has neglected a most important branch of his subject.

In conclusion we would point out that the bibliography is far from satisfactory, and that the too frequent lack of footnotes, giving chapter and verse for the statements made in the text, is much to be regretted. The index also needs enlargement and revision. Yet, with all its faults of omission and commission, the work remains a monument of painstaking compilation, and not even the most modest English library which has a shelf for books on things Italian can do without it.

The Labor Movement in Australia: A Study in Social Democracy. By Victor S. Clark. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.

In 1903 Mr. Clark visited Australia and New Zealand, under commission from the United States Bureau of Labor, and prepared two excellent reports upon social conditions at the Antipodes, which were published in the "Bulletin" of the bureau. In the volume now before us he undertakes a philosophical account of the rise, policy, and results of the political labor movement in Australia. That this movement is frankly socialistic he tells us at the outset, observing, however, that it differs from European socialism as British political history has differed from Continental. Australasian socialism is a vigorous popular demand for concrete reforms which are immediately brought into the domain of practical politics; and it has been little influenced by anyone's theories about surplus value, the class struggle, or the iron law of wages. It is, indeed, almost "a socialism without doctrines," but always strong upon the side of its practical programme.

Mr. Clark shows that the causes of the present labor movement in Australia reach back into the distant past. The paternal government necessary in the early convict settlements is reflected in the paternal policies of the modern democratic communities; the prevalence of the grazing industry gave rise to large estates which prevented the growth of a conservative middle class in the agricultural districts and created a distinct agrarian problem; the stream of immigrants was diverted from the land to the cities, where a very large percentage of the population soon came to consist of hired laborers suffering periodically from unemployment; the construction of highways and other public works by convict labor while transportation continued, established the precedent for government railways and public works to employ idle labor; and then when parliamentary government was introduced, about the middle of the nineteenth century, the large landed interests were virtually placed in control and permitted to set up a class government of an aristocratic type, which was bound to provoke revolt and invite transition to class government of the so-called democratic kind. In 1890, when the present labor movement began to gather strength, it was necessary for the workers to contend simultaneously for equal suffrage, free schools, and rational land laws, as well as for the higher wages, shorter hours, old-age pensions, and other things believed to be necessary or desirable. All things considered, the only reason for surprise is that the agitation did not begin sooner.

Once started, the labor movement found all conditions favorable for rapid growth. Forty-seven per cent. of the population lived in towns, where the proportion of hired laborers was large and the work of organization easiest. Then the laboring classes were of the same stock, and the agitators did not encounter those racial difficulties which so greatly complicate the task of the "organizer" in the United States. The industrial workers of the towns and cities were first "unionized"; the railway employees, seamen, and waterside workers followed suit; and then the miners and shearers, non-urban laborers, but easily organized because congregated in mining camps or thrown together in isolated groups on ranches, were brought into line. Since there was no considerable class of small landed proprietors to serve as a makeweight, opposition could come only from the large landed proprietors, who were not numerous. It needed, therefore, but a wave of popular discontent, such as followed the failure of the maritime strike in 1890, and the industrial depression of 1893, to turn the battle overwhelmingly in favor of the labor party, which has maintained its ascendency ever since.

While the party has never looked far ahead of the practical reforms demanded at any moment, a survey of its policies for the past ten or twelve years shows a steady advance towards the ideals of social democracy. The progressive taxation of land values, the breaking up of large estates, and the retention of the public domain not already alienated, point unmistakably toward the policy of land nationalization. The all-comprehensive factory acts and sweeping employers' liability laws mean increased governmental control of industry, which the demand for a statutory eight-hour day and national minimum wage may yet greatly intensify. The growing popularity of State-trading in all its forms—railways, telegraphs, land-banks, coal mines, insurance, warehouses, and the like—implies a corresponding increase of the functions directly exercised by government; while old-age pensions, which have already been established in three States, further enhance public agencies at the expense of private. And all this is not considered a final programme; gradually, yet as rapidly as feasible, the labor leaders propose to abolish, or so far regulate, private employment that in practice, if not in theory, the goal of the collectivists will be reached.

Mr. Clark has something to say about each important part of the labor programme, but is at his best in the chapter dealing with the economic and social effects of industrial regulation, particularly compulsory arbitration. Beginning early in the nineties and culminating in the Federal act of 1904, which applies to disputes reaching beyond the boundaries of a single State, compulsory arbitration has been in operation for a considerable time, and some of its results can be determined with reasonable certainty. As might have been expected, the outcome has been, at various points, very different from what its advocates predicted; yet the laws have all but abolished strikes, and have in some respects improved the condition of labor. But, upon the other hand, the existence of the industrial courts has unduly encouraged laborers to bring cases before them, thus multiplying litigation and making business conditions uncertain. There are single employers who work under as many as seven awards, and some of them have several cases awaiting decision. Wages have been standardized, with the inevitable result that the better workers receive little or no more than the mediocre, thereby losing incentive to efficiency. The least efficient workers, who cannot earn the minimum legal wage, have been discharged; and have either been employed on public works carried on, with borrowed money, for their benefit, or have crept into attics and basements to establish little shops where they make goods which they peddle directly to retailers at cut prices. The courts have regulated such matters as the speed at which the machines are to be run, and the number of men to be employed on a machine. Under these conditions the sole function remaining to the employer would seem to be to pay the bills, for the control of his establishment has virtually passed from his hands. By restricting employers and raising the wages of mediocre workers the cost of production has been largely increased, so that a higher tariff has been called for in order to protect the industries from foreign competition. Indeed, the cost of living has advanced so that the labor leaders are complaining that the workmen are losing the advantages gained by

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"progressive legislation," and are beginning to call for State regulation of prices as a necessary concomitant of regulation of wages. In some cases employers "have entered into collusion with their employees to enforce an industrial agreement . . . for the purpose of justifying a rise of prices," so that monopoly has been built up behind "progressive" laws enacted for the benefit of the workers. And, finally, it appears that while employers, by reason of their financial responsibility, are held to strict compliance with the terms of any award, the laborers are able practically to evade the decrees of the courts at many points when the outcome of litigation is not to their liking.

Who pays for it all is clearly shown by Mr. Clark. Up to the present time only a small percentage of the population is engaged in the industries which have been "regulated,"—in New Zealand 3 per cent., in western Australia 7 per cent.; and the "regulated" industries are not those which are the main sources of national income. Agriculture, grazing, and gold-mining have had to bear the burden, and since they produce for a world-market, they have no way of recouping their losses from industrial regimentation. Yet, compulsory arbitration is, after all, but a single factor—and not a principal one at that—in the economic conditions of Australasia; and it is not possible as yet to secure much tangible evidence concerning its effects, one way or the other. Perhaps, as Mr. Clark suggests, the tendency may be for the awards of the courts to become "mere formal statements of average conditions of employment," which will merely prevent great inequalities from existing in particular establishments, and will not attempt to reverse economic law. This would minimize the harm that compulsory arbitration could do, but would also, we fear, decrease its attractions for social reformers.

In his final chapter, Mr. Clark discusses, with genuine insight, the future of the Australasian labor movement. That political responsibility will breed conservatism, he considers certain; and in the growth of a class of small farmers he finds a force that may ultimately check the development of "progressive" policies. The results thus far achieved may "represent progress," but they are no final solution of the problem; while for the United States the experience of Australasia is interesting, but not conclusive. Mr. Clark has covered a large field, and has done his work well; to our knowledge no other writer—in America at least—has brought back from that economic wonderland so reliable a report of the alleged marvels wrought in the name of "progress." His publisher should have seen to it that the book was provided with a better index.

A Revolutionary Princess: Christina Belgiojoso-Trivulzio, Her Life and Times. By H. Remsen Whitehouse. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

It is curious that the great statesman who more than any one man helped to create modern Italy is, in a sense, the least characteristic figure of the Risorgimento. And if Cavour, who accomplished so much, is the least characteristic, it might almost be said that the Princess Belgiojoso is the most typical. To catalogue the traits of her character would require much space, but the dominant one was clearly her sense of the dramatic. Give her a background, and her imagination would quickly evolve the pose to catch the eye. Whether decked out in fancy dress for the aristocratic balls of Milan, or in classic costume for Lehmann's morbidly staring portrait, or with Phrygian bonnet and tricolored flag to lend a band of fiddlers with Garibaldi and Mazzini through the streets of apathetic Rome in the last days of the Republic, she was always beautiful, always picturesque, always *outré*, and often high-minded. And what more effective background could she find than the Risorgimento? In her earliest youth it was already arising behind her; her heart and her imagination accepted it; and to the end of her days she postured faithfully before its curling clouds of battle smoke and windy rhetoric. For the cause of Italy she poured out her money and her talents with open hands. She even served in the field, for under the fire of Oudinot's batteries and the unjust sneers of many of her own countrymen she organized the hospitals that took in Garibaldi's and Manara's wounded, during the siege of Rome. And in the end what does it all come to? The frail figure of an extraordinary woman fleeting across the historic stage, a woman who could fascinate Alfred de Musset and Margaret Fuller; who advised Charles Albert and Mazzini; who, courted by Milan and Paris, had no lovers, yet may well be suspected of political assassination; whose political judgments were as the weathercocks in March, but who could master and translate that most terribly abstruse of all philosophical works, the "Scienza Nuova" of Vico.

Rafaello Barbiera published in Milan two books, "La Principessa Belgiojoso," 1902, and "Passioni del Risorgimento," 1903, which deal in excellent literary form with the curious personality of Christina Belgiojoso. He is very much at home in the Italian, if not in the French, literature of the period, and his books deserve the success with which they have met in Italy. Mr. Whitehouse supplements Signor Barbiera on some details of the Princess's life in Paris, and though his book cannot rank very high either as literature or history, it will do well enough to introduce to the subject those who cannot read Italian.

Uganda to Khartoum. Life and Adventure on the Upper Nile. By Albert B. Lloyd. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3 net.

This book is a record of travel, adventure, and work among the natives of a little-known part of Central Africa. Its special interest lies in the fact that many of the author's journeys were made in response to appeals for teachers from the kings and chiefs of the savage tribes of the northern provinces of the Uganda Protectorate. It shows also some of the new methods of missionary work: religious instruction being aided by exhibitions of the magic lantern and the phonograph; the drunken dances of the Acholi being combated by the western game of football. Mr. Lloyd's descriptions of these peoples and their manner of life are much more vivid and trustworthy than those of the casual traveller, and he presents the pure savage at times in an unusually favorable light. The naked Acholi, for instance, are so determined to prevent immorality that "the young women are kept in their houses soon after dark, and the young unmarried men have to live in curiously constructed houses erected on piles many feet above the ground."

When the natives learned that the white teacher was coming to live with them, they all with one accord, chiefs and their followers, women and young girls, set to and built a fine house of poles and mud walls for him. Occasionally a woman, carrying on her head a huge earthenware pot of water, instead of emptying its contents on the dry clay which had been shovelled into a pit for mixing, "would splash it all over the body of some fine young warrior who might be busily engaged in ornamenting himself with colored earth or wood ashes; then there was a chase until the culprit was caught, amid much laughter and good will, only to be allowed to go again with nothing worse than a laughing admonition."

Mr. Lloyd's exciting adventures while hunting to obtain food for the natives occupy a prominent place in the early part of his narrative. They were chiefly with lions and elephants, but in one instance he fell into a death-trap for antelope. The closing chapters are devoted to an account of his journey to Khartoum, which necessitated his passing through the sudd, the floating vegetation which for so many centuries has blocked all navigation on the upper reaches of the Nile. So vast is the mass, that the winding channels through the papyrus grass "added at least 300 miles" to his river journey. Incidentally he confirms the testimony of Lord Cromer and other travellers that nearly all the natives of the Congo State Nile region have taken refuge on the British side of the river from the tyranny of the Belgians. Eighty well-chosen illustrations, especially those of the wild tribes, add much to the interest and value of the book.

Science.

Lectures on the Method of Science. Edited by T. B. Strong, Dean of Christ Church. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. $2.50.

These lectures formed part of a course on scientific method delivered at the request of the delegates for the Extension of University Teaching during the summer meeting at Oxford, in August, 1905. They are not, what the title would lead the reader to expect, a series of lectures on scientific method as such, but rather samples of investigative problems in diverse fields—including biology, physiology, anthropology, archæology, history, psycho-physics, and mathematical-astronomy. The first two lectures ("Scientific Method as a Mental Operation," by Prof. T. Case, and "Some Aspects of the Scientific Method," by Prof. F. Gotch), which treat explicitly of the subject designated in the title of the book, are in reality the least valuable chapters.

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The real contributions to the study of method are tacit and incidental features of the other papers, which make the least overt reference to the subject. These are not so much discussions, as exemplifications, of method. It remains for the methodologist to dissect out the logical import.

Prof. C. S. Sherrington's paper on "Physiology; Its Scope and Method" does not deal with even this subordinate problem of method, but is an interesting exposition of the mechanism in the body for maintaining an equilibrium of animal heat. Prof. W. F. R. Weldon's paper on "Inheritance in Animals and Plants" likewise, while treating in an interesting way of certain phases of the statistical method in science, deals in the briefest possible fashion with its ostensible subject. The next two papers, that of Prof. W. McDougall on "Psycho-physical Method" and that of Prof. A. H. Fison on "The Evolution of Double Stars," represent the book at its best; the latter paper especially (while itself making no explicit mention of method as such) inevitably stimulates the thoughtful reader to a reflection on the methodological implications. This lecture and the three concluding ones on "The Evolution of Currency and Coinage" by Sir Richard Temple, "Archæological Evidence" by Prof. W. M. F. Petrie, and "Scientific Method as Applied to History" by the editor, combine to raise the one clear issue on the side of methodology in the book, viz., the difference in point of departure and kinds of proof between the historical and the mathematico-physical sciences. The problem is but stated; it is not discussed. But this in itself would repay the reader who is interested in the methodology of science.

The *Annales de Géographie* for March contains the first of a series of articles on the Philippines, by F. Maurette, a summary of the facts contained in the reports of the census of 1903 and of the Philippine Commission. In this he treats of the physical geography and climate of the islands. Paul Le Cointe describes the configuration of the little known part of Brazil lying to the north of the Amazon, and gives some interesting facts as to the amount of deposits in the valley from the erosion of the hills. A remarkable map showing the results of his explorations during fourteen years, together with those of other travellers, accompanies the article. The much debated question as to whether the level of the Mediterranean has changed in historic times is decided in the negative by L. Cayeux, who bases his conclusions upon personal investigations in the islands of Delos and Crete. The other contents include a study of the region of the sand dunes in the Sahara illustrated by phototypes, and of a remarkable valley in Algeria.

The *American Astronomer* is begun with vol. i., No. 1, April 15, issuing from Marlborough, Mass., and edited by William D. McPherson. It is a four-page monthly, devoted to news from the observatories, reports of observations, discussion of problems, reviews of current literature, personal notes, book reviews, reports of astronomical meetings, etc. In short, it aims to be the practical astronomer's newspaper. Dr. Joel Metcalf of Taunton has the only original observations published in this initial number—many new asteroids of his own finding. Two new large telescopes are projected, a twenty-four-inch refractor for Swarthmore, and a thirty-six-inch reflector for Ann Arbor. Prof. D. P. Todd's forthcoming expedition to the Andes is noted in a paragraph, and the annual reports of the Carnegie Institution and Harvard Observatory.

The Royal Academy of Sciences in Berlin has just sent out a special research commission to the West Indies, consisting of Prof. W. Kükenthal, director of the Zoological Institute in Breslau, and Dr. H. Hartmeyer, of the Zoölogical Museum in Berlin. Its object is to make collections of both land and water fauna, and to study certain kinds of fish systematically. The researches will be extended to the Lesser Antilles, Cuba, and the Tortugas Islands, the last mentioned at the invitation of the Carnegie Institution.

Drama.

ALLA NAZIMOVA.

That Alla Nazimova is an actress of the first class, by virtue of natural aptitude and artistic accomplishment, cannot be doubted, but whether she possesses the highest order of histrionic genius, that is to say the tragic, is a question that yet remains to be answered. The impulsive verdict of those enthusiastic admirers who accepted her performances in the Russian drama as proof of her supremacy is not conclusive. To most of these eulogists at any rate Russian was an absolutely unknown tongue and, in such a case, susceptible observers are only too apt to take *omne ignotum pro mirifico*. Vivid pantomime and passionate declamation are not necessarily evidence of an inspired or noble interpretation. Neither in Ibsen's Nora nor in his Hedda, and certainly not in the Countess Nina of Roberto Bracco's "Infidele" ("Comtesse Coquette") is there any product of intellectual, moral, or emotional greatness to employ the highest resources of the actor's art. The very essence of these characters is either common, debased, or trivial. Manifestly, they require no extraordinary powers for their comprehension or expression. Each of them has been played effectively and satisfactorily by actresses of second-rate capacity. But nobody, on this side of the Atlantic, has embodied them so brilliantly as Nazimova, with such finished technical skill, such distinctive individuality, or such bold and harmonious coloring. She may not always have realized the ideal of the author—her Hedda, indeed, was a complete perversion of it—but, for the present purpose, that is a matter of very small importance. The significant point is that she demonstrated her ability to conceive and vitalize three strongly contrasted types of womankind: a child wife of good natural instincts, but conscienceless through lack of moral training; a malignant degenerate, and an arch coquette, insatiable in conquest, but proof against the temptation she provoked. In spite of her striking personality she made of each of these personages a separate entity, clearly and sharply defined, which could not at any moment be confounded with either of the others.

And this effect she created by the sheer force of sustained impersonation, by natural and appropriate changes of carriage, gesture, and action, without adopting the cheap expedient of disguise, exaggeration, or studied eccentricity. She is not altogether devoid of mannerisms, but none of those which she has is so peculiar or so idiosyncratic as to weaken the illusion of the assumed personality. In respect of versatility it is tolerably safe to declare, even now, that there is no actress known to the American stage who can approach her. She is worthy of comparison, in this regard, with Novelli himself, and it is a rather humiliating reflection that it is necessary to go to the foreign stage for examples of a faculty supposed to be inherent in all true actors. The explanation, however, is simple. Novelli and Nazimova both learned their art by long labor in stock companies. But versatility in itself is not an assurance of greatness, or Novelli might be the equal of Salvini. The supreme test lies in the interpretation of the passions or pathos of nobler natures than are to be found in the social dramas of Ibsen or contemporaneous sexual comedy. Until Madame Nazimova has passed through some such ordeal her exact artistic position cannot be determined.

Harrison Grey Fiske has bought the stage rights of Percy Mackaye's poetic tragedy, "Sappho and Phaon," and will produce it next season with Bertha Kalisch in the character of the heroine. Mr. Mackaye by his "Joan of Arc" has demonstrated his ability to write dramatic poetry. In the new piece there is only one scene, the exterior of a Greek temple overlooking the Ægean Sea, which will be seen in the effulgence of full daylight, under the midnight moon, and at dawn. Whether the play succeeds or not, the presentation of a literary and imaginative work is an encouraging sign.

The new "fantastic comedy," by William J. Locke, "The Palace of Puck," which has just been produced at the London Haymarket Theatre, seems to have proved somewhat of a disappointment. Its object is to contrast representatives of the artistic world with those of the suburban Philistia, but the types of both seem to be entirely theatrical and conventional.

The Anderson Auction Company of this city will sell, on April 22, 23, and 24, two sessions each day, the library of Charles N. Mann of Philadelphia. The material is mainly dramatic, and includes collections relating to David Garrick, Colley Cibber, Jeremy Collier, Edwin Forrest, and the history of Covent Garden and Drury Lane and other London theatres. Among rarities are Goldsmith's "Good Natur'd Man," 1768, and "She Stoops to Conquer," 1773; "The Life and Memoirs of the late Ann Catley," 1789; Dunlap's "The Father," Philadelphia, 1789, first edition; Godfrey's "Juvenile Poems," Philadelphia, 1765; Prynne's "Historio-Mastix," 1633; Rainolde's "Overthrow of Stage-Plays," 1629; and Mercy Warren's "Poems," Boston, 1790, with manuscript corrections apparently by the author. There are several extra-illustrated books. The second part of the collection, comprising engravings, autographs, and play-bills, will be sold April 25 and 26.

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Music.

Ratschläge für Aufführungen der Symphonien Beethovens. Von Felix Weingartner. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

The Irishman who, on being asked whether he could play the violin, replied that he didn't know, as he had never tried, had about as clear an understanding of the matter as a great many concert-goers have of the functions of an orchestral conductor. So far as they can see, anybody could do what he does—rap his desk for silence, and then wave his bâton or his hands to make his men keep time. There have even been operatic managers who could not be made to comprehend the importance of the conductor until experience taught them. Oscar Hammerstein is not one of these; he was wise enough to engage Cleofonte Campanini at $12,000 for five months at the Manhattan Opera House, and found him a great deal cheaper than a $1,000 man would have been, as he became a greater attraction than any of the singers, with perhaps two or three exceptions. Wassily Safonoff got $12,500 for conducting the eighteen Philharmonic concerts of the season now closing and he was worth it; the hundred members of the orchestra have received the unprecedented dividend of $350 apiece.

What is it that makes the conductor such an important personage? An eloquent answer to this question may be found in Weingartner's "Suggestions for Performances of Beethoven's Symphonies." The eminent Berlin conductor devotes 197 pages to a discussion of the proper way of interpreting these nine works, and every one of his pages illustrates some phase of the diverse knowledge and skill required of an orchestral leader. What the auditor sees in the concert hall is merely the pilot turning his wheel. But as the sea pilot must know his ocean bottoms thoroughly, so the musical pilot must have fathomed all the depths of his scores. He must know more than one coast, too—must be at home equally on German, French, Russian, and other territory. He must be thoroughly acquainted with the peculiarities of all the great masters; in the words of Weingartner, "a great conductor must unite in himself as many personalities as there are masterworks for him to interpret."

Most difficult of all the great masters to interpret satisfactorily is Beethoven. Not that his music is deeper or more intricate than that of some other composers. What makes it difficult is that, largely through Beethoven's own fault, there is frequently a lack of lucidity if the notes are played just as they are written. Beethoven was deaf during the second half of his life, which prevented him from always correctly estimating his color values; he was, moreover, hampered in the natural expression of his thoughts quite frequently by the fact that some of the instruments in use in his time, notably the horns and trumpets, were unable to play certain tones; this caused him suddenly to break off a melody assigned to them and give it to another, to the detriment of clearness. Wagner was the first who had the courage to retouch the Beethoven scores, saving the melodic curve by using modern instruments. Beethoven would have doubtless done the same had he had these modern instruments, yet Wagner was violently abused by the purists.

Times have changed. Wagner applied his method of retouching chiefly to the ninth symphony, which needs it most; Weingartner has now applied it to all of these works, and apparently not a voice has been raised in protest. He does not always agree with Wagner, and he is inclined to sneer rather unnecessarily at Wagner's pupil Bülow, whom he accuses of sensationalism and other dreadful things, at least in the last years of his life. He is a believer in modifications of pace, where they seem advisable, though not indicated by the composer; he rejects Beethoven's own metronome marks in many cases as misleading or even impossible, and he agrees with Wagner as to the much-disputed tempo of the third movement of the eighth symphony. He indicates where certain groups of instruments should be doubled, for the sake of balance and clearness; calls attention to the fact that what is advisable in one hall may prove unwise in another. He gives his reasons in detail why the soloists and the chorus needed for the last movement of the ninth symphony should be on the stage from the beginning of the whole work, instead of interrupting the continuity by coming in, as ordinarily, just before the last movement.

A particularly subtle illustration of the conductor's function occurs on p. 171, where Weingartner calls attention to the fact that in a certain passage Beethoven, oddly enough, assigns a difficult solo to the fourth horn player. Weingartner advises its being given to whichever of the four hornists plays best. And on another page (113) we have an eloquent reference to the demands made on the conductor's emotional side. Referring to a certain passage in the finale of the seventh symphony, the author declares that the effect designed can be produced only if the conductor has the power to kindle in all the players, for the production of a jubilant sonority, an overabundant outpouring of energy—a process requiring a degree of devotion and willpower which is both physically and mentally most exhausting. "He who conducts these pages without sacrificing part of himself, will miss fire."

Now that "Hänsel and Gretel" has achieved the distinction, two years in succession, of having had more performances at the Metropolitan Opera House than any other opera, the other works of Humperdinck are more likely to receive attention. His latest production is a "Shakespeare Suite," made up of pieces connected with scenes in the "Tempest," "Winter's Tale," and "Merchant of Venice." It had its first performance at a recent Berlin concert, and the critics praised it for the elegant structure of the pieces, the beautiful orchestration, and the gayety of the shepherds' dances.

While no composer is more popular in the concert hall than Tchaikovsky, his operas, nearly a dozen in number, have not achieved much success outside of Russia, with the exception of "Eugene Onegin." Recently the Berlin Royal Opera made an attempt with "Pique Dame." The first act fell flat, but with the second the audience began to be more interested, and the final verdict was favorable, notwithstanding the fact that, as one critic said, Tchaikovsky is weakest where he ought to be strongest—in dramatic climaxes.

Weber died before he could rewrite his last work, "Oberon," which he composed in haste for London during his fatal illness. There is so much exquisite fairy music in it that every now and then some German musician attempts to rescue the whole opera by editing it. Some years ago Josef Schlar made an effort of this kind, but it was not appreciated. A greater man, Gustav Mahler, has now undertaken the task. His version of "Oberon" will be produced at Vienna.

Among the leading articles in the April *Etude* are the following: "Making a Community Musical"; "Considerations on Foreign Study"; "Technical Delusions"; "Dangers of Thoughtless Automatic Practice"; "Aim and Scope of Music for the Left Hand Alone"; "Rubinstein in His Classroom." There is also a translation of an essay by Heinrich Pudor on the "Control of Nervousness in the Musician."

Art.

THE CARNEGIE INSTITUTE EXHIBITION

PITTSBURGH, April 15.

Not only has Pittsburgh been supplied, by the liberality of Mr. Carnegie, with far ampler and finer galleries than any we have in New York—she supplies the crowds to fill them. Thirty thousand people are said to have visited the Institute yesterday afternoon, the first Sunday after the opening of the new building. Of course, this is an exceptional occasion, but I am assured that fifteen thousand is not an unusual number of visitors for the first Sunday after the opening of the annual exhibition.

More than five hundred pictures are hung in the exhibition, yet there is some space around each picture, and no picture is hung very high. All are well in sight, and well lighted. The collection has a special interest in that so considerable a part of it comes from abroad, giving an opportunity to compare the work of some of the most conspicuous painters of other countries with that of our own men. It is not a strictly contemporary exhibition, there being a sprinkling through it of pictures by painters no longer living, and of pictures painted some time ago by still living men, but the bulk of it is fairly enough representative of the current work of to-day. Of the American work by far the greater part has been seen already in New York, for our own exhibitions, in spite of all difficulties, remain the only ones in this country in which most of the pictures shown are seen for the first time.

The effect of some of the earlier pictures, hanging here among those more recent in date, is very interesting. Here are Boudin, Monet, Renoir, Sisley, Pissarro, represented by pictures which were thought revolutionary in their day, and which now seem very sane, very quiet, almost classic. Boudin, to be sure, was always gray in color, and never impressionistic, except in the disdain of detail, but just beside his view of Étaples, painted in 1886, hangs Monet's The Seine at Lavacour, painted in

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1880, and it looks almost as quiet as the Boudin. It is a little gilded with time, but it can never have been raw or extreme in color. It is spacious, luminous, silvery; not more vague in form than many a Corot; showing a clear sense of arrangement. It contains no brown—that is all the revolution marked by it. The Renoir looks merely feeble and inefficiently pretty; it would be rococo if it could. But Sisley's Terrace at St. Germaine-en-Laye, painted in 1875, is grave, almost austere, admirably and thoroughly drawn, with every yard of earth accounted for, sober in color, without a violence of surface or a gap in its completion.

The authoritative air of pictures once so fiercely discussed bids us beware of rashness in our present judgments. Is it possible that what seem to us the eccentricities of the moment will, in another thirty years, take their place in this same easy way? Or is it not possible that these same eccentricities of to-day lend, by their extravagance, an air of conservatism to works which still retained some elements of the art of a great past? The earlier impressionists founded their art upon the academic tradition from which they broke away, and owed a great part of their strength to that against which they protested. What will be the result of an art which is in turn founded upon the work of these impressionists, and which has never known their discipline? And it is not possible really to judge the art of to-day by this, or by any one, exhibition. The pictures are likely enough to be here because of a conspicuity due as much to their faults as to their merits, and we cannot tell what good and honest work is doing in the world that has not found its way here. But the exhibition, as one sees it, gives certain general impressions, and one can but record them with a word of caution.

The strongest of these impressions is that beautiful painting is hardly any longer attempted save in America. It is not merely that the finest things here, from the great Sargent and the great Thayer, hanging opposite each other in one of the large galleries, to small pictures in unregarded corners, are by Americans; it is that a love for the art itself, for beauty of workmanship, beauty of color, beauty of tone or line or arrangement, seems almost extinct in the European schools. The French and German pictures here are blankly commonplace and photographically realistic, or they are sensational, brutal, decadent. The English do better, and send some bits of real enough art, not greatly successful, but art, nevertheless; in which beauty has been the principal aim. But every canvas that reaches real distinction, every picture that gives one pleasure in a high degree from its perception of some form of beauty in nature or its intrinsic quality as a work of art, will be found to bear an American name.

One of the most curious things in the painting of the day is the utter demoralization of the sense of color. The impressionists are supposed to have "liberated the palette" and to have brought back natural color to an art that was lost in bitumen. What has come to their descendants? Here is chalky and plastery color, muddy and inky color, darkness and dirt and grime, varied by an occasional explosion of fireworks. It would seem that the numbed color-sense of some of these men no longer responded to anything short of raw vermilion. The study of the later nineteenth century was the study of light and air. In some strange way it has brought these men of the twentieth to the denial of both. Their canvases are flat and hard and airless, as lacking in luminosity as they are in quality. Look at Cottet's Cathedral of Segovia, with its naïve red and black to represent the evening glow and the shadow; at Dauchez's Highroad, white with black shadows; at Simon's Woman with a White Glove, in an atmosphere of ivory black. Is this the color and light we have regarded as the mark of modern painting? These pictures have no more color than had those of the victims of asphaltum. Or, take Besnard's Portrait of Madame Besnard and Portrait of My Children. The first is plain black and white; the other has interesting color and interesting character, and it is well drawn also, but it has no atmosphere. The back of the room is as near you as the front, and the landscape is as near as either. With all this study of the tricks of light and air the feeling of light and air has disappeared. For Besnard has studied these things—apparently, the others have not.

Three pictures more may be cited as typical of the faults of the foreign painting represented here: Morot's portrait of Robert S. McCormick, of its crude realism; La Touche's The Bath, of its sensationalism; Stuck's Saharet, of its decadence. Morot's portrait is drawn with photographic accuracy, forced in light and shade almost to pure white for the lights, violently modelled. Everything seems to have been sacrificed to the mere illusion of corporeal presence. It "stands out," and it is like—horribly like—that is all. It is impossible to deny cleverness to Gaston la Touche, to whom the jury awarded the medal of the first class, but one could wish it otherwise employed. Perhaps there is a satiric intention in this confusion of epochs, of sedan chairs and rococo fountains, with a naked satyr and a badly drawn woman just removing the last of her very modern garments. But, putting aside all questions of subject or of artistic ethics, the curious, vermicelli-like handling; the hot, red and yellow color; the lack of substance or surfaces anywhere—these are far from pleasing. But the work is charming by comparison with the black-ringed eyes, the green complexion, the twisted vermilion lips with pure black dots at the corners, of Stuck's Saharet. It is a picture which suggests nothing but disease.

One must mention that there is real beauty and refinement, both of character and of color, in Aman Jean's portrait of a lady, and much sound painting, of the sort that has always been good since the Dutchmen practised it, in Joseph Bail's Bakery in Pontivy, and then we may pass on to the American pictures.

The largest, and, in a general view, perhaps the most important of these, is Mr. Sargent's portrait of the four professors of Johns Hopkins University, but I cannot think it altogether the happiest effort of its brilliant author. No one else now painting could have produced it, but Mr. Sargent has done things one likes better. The composition is a little restless, as if a breeze were agitating the robes and scarves of the academic costume, and the contrast between the rather cold black of the gown, and the warm tones of the background is a trifle sharp. It is a prodigiously skilful work, or it would not be his, but perhaps there is more pleasure to be got out of his portrait of the Hon. Mrs. Frederick Guest or his fresh sketch of William Thorne. Even the heads, except that to the extreme left, seem less vitally realized than usual.

Directly opposite this group hang two pictures by Abbott H. Thayer, both well known, the Caritas belonging to the Boston Museum and the Portrait of a Young Woman lent by the Metropolitan. There are lacunæ in both—unexpected lapses in continuity, changes in color not quite accounted for—but both are works of art and of very fine art, delicate and strong, noble and refined. The grand silhouette and large pattern of them, the restrained and beautiful color, the repose shot through with energy, the justness and beauty of line and value—these things strike the keynote of what seems an American quality to-day—the devotion to art and to the production of beauty. Or, take, instead of these large canvases, a very small one that hangs next the Sargents, Dewing's little picture called The Letter. Some hundreds of years hence the historian of our time may be puzzled by Mr. Dewing's treatment of our life, and wonder if the ladies of the day usually sat in such bare rooms or wore low-cut dresses in the daytime; but what does it matter? It is a fantasy, but what a delicate one! What dainty sureness of line, what exquisite modulations of faint color, what discrimination of values, what beauty of the pigment itself, of mere paint, treated with a sense of its possibilities as a material, laid thinly and fluidly with due respect to its nature, and responding, as even dead materials do, to loving treatment! If you wish for a more robust handling, look at Miss Cassatt's Reading Lesson; the color, with its combination of orange and pale blue, a trifle shrill, perhaps, but with a tart pleasantness; the mother's head, good in type and thoroughly drawn and modelled; the paint simply and naturally laid on, softly solid, free yet firm, a delight to the eye and a temptation to the touch. Look at the close tissue of Brush's early painting of a Sioux Brave; at the virtuosity, subjected to the rendering of character, in Wiles's portrait of Henry Wolf; at the sure and early brush-work of Miss Beaux, in a whole group of portraits, equal to Sargent in freedom, superior to him in sense of color, only inferior in that grasp of form, that absoluteness of draughtsmanship, which is his supreme distinction. In all these canvases, various as they are, there is evidenced the love of painting as an art, the desire to do things beautifully, the respect for the trade, which seem to be fading from the world.

You may find the same qualities, shown still otherwise, in the work of Weir and Hassam. The textures are rougher here and more rugged. The ideal of material beauty is different, but beauty is what is sought. Mr. Hassam's three pictures are none of them quite his best—in the largest, called Aphrodite, there is a rigidity and sharpness of edge hardly to be expected of his method, and he has not quite succeeded

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in enveloping his figure in air. But look at the authority of the pattern, the determinate decorative substance. It is conceived, thought out, seen. Things are where they should be—where they must be. There is no haphazard about it; this "impressionist" is, above all, a composer. As for Mr. Weir, how infallibly he is the artist we all know. He may fail, now and then, to express his intention, but the intention is always of the highest. You feel in him, always, the utmost sensitiveness to beauty, the utmost sincerity of aim. At his best, no one is better and even his failures are lovable. His June, his Summer Evening, his Gray Gown, show him nearly at his best, subtle, delicate, refined, yet with a frank simple-mindedness that is a great part of his charm. Now and then, perhaps, he has added to these qualities a breadth and force that have placed him on a still higher level, but as he is seen here he is a very fine painter.

It is not my intention to attempt a mention of all the good pictures. I have said nothing of Homer or Schofield or Redfield or Ochtman or Foster, and I shall say nothing of the Whistlers or of Mr. Eakin's sturdy portrait of Prof. Leslie Miller, which took the Proctor prize at the Academy of Design a year or two ago, and has now taken the second prize here. All these and many other things I must overlook. I have chosen for comment those pictures which came first to mind as illustrations of my thesis. Doubtless I have neglected good pictures by foreigners also, as I have certainly neglected bad ones. But the large general impression left upon my mind by the exhibition is this—whether it is due to prejudice and inflexibility on my part, or to an actual state of facts—that the schools of painting on the Continent of Europe are in a state of decadence; that the British painters are in a healthier state than their Continental brethren; and that the best and most hopeful work being done anywhere to-day is being done by Americans, and largely in America. KENYON COX.

"Le Fonti di Siena e i loro Aquedotti," by Fabio Bargugli Petrucci (Florence: Leo S. Olski), is one of those painstaking works in mediæval archæology of which Italy produces so many. No less than sixty public fountains are described and illustrated. All legislation concerning water supply is epitomized. The courses of Roman aqueducts are traced, and even plans that were begun but left unfinished are duly charted. Since the fountains were often (notably Quercia's Fonte Gaia) works of art, the study touches art history at many points, and since the story of aqueducts is an index of that of civilization, the book must be reckoned with the minuter works in *Kulturgeschichte*. The survey extends from the earliest times to 1555, occupying two stout volumes in folio, of which the second consists exclusively of documents, with an index. Quite apart from aqueous concerns, the book will be useful to all who study narrowly the past of Siena.

The same publisher announces for publication this spring an important four-volume work by Prince d'Esseling, "Les Livres à Figures Vénitiens." Ever since the late Dr. Lippmann's excellent treatise on early Italian wood engraving, there has been a growing interest in that charming form of graphic design. Nobody of late years has contributed more acceptably to this branch of bibliography than Prince d'Esseling, and this forthcoming work will sum up his studies of a lifetime. He will review 2,600 illustrated books from the beginnings to 1525. A novel kind of research will be the tracing of the migrations of the early wood blocks. The Venetian inventions were widely plagiarized; frequently the blocks were circulated, and Venice made appropriate reprisals upon the foreign printers. There are to be four large folio volumes, the typography, paper, and illustration being of the finest. The edition is limited to 300 copies, and the subscription price is 125 francs a volume, for such subscribers as are registered before the appearance of the first.

Several archæological discoveries of interest are reported from Italy. In Cattolica Eraclea, in Sicily, the foundation walls of a magnificent theatre, dating from the classical age, have been uncovered, and extensive researches have been begun. In Ancora a number of Roman tombs have been found, containing, among other things, two beautiful silver vases, a number of urns, with ashes of cremated persons; gold earrings with smaragd stones. Signor Pellegrini, the director of the Museum at Ancora, believes these finds belong to the third pre-Christian century.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art has lately increased its accessions of work by American artists by purchase of five bronzes, four by Frederic Remington, and one by Edward Kemeys; and four paintings, one by Eastman Johnson, The Corn Husking, and one by William Gedney Bunce, Morning View in Venice. The other two canvases, which are perhaps the most important of the recent accessions, are portraits by Gilbert Stuart of Don Josef de Jaudenes y Nebot, Spanish minister to the United States, and Doña Matilde Stoughton de Jaudenes, his wife, signed and dated September 8, 1794.

Paintings by Emil Carlsen, William M. Chase, Arthur B. B. Davis, Ernest Lawson, Kenneth Hayes Miller, F. Luis Mora, James Wilson Morrice, John Sloan, John H. Twachtman, and J. Alden Weir will be shown till April 20 at the Gallery of the New York School of Art. Lithographs by Whistler are on exhibition at the Grolier Club till April 27; and work by representative American engravers will be shown at the Lenox Library till June 1. Pictures by William L. Lathrop will be on exhibition at Montross's till April 27; miniatures by Hugh Nicholson are shown at Fishel, Adler & Schwartz's; and paintings by Josef Israëls, Jacob Maris, Weissenbruch, Blommers, and De Bock at C. W. Krauchaar's.

The pictures of the late Stanford White, offered at auction in this city last week, brought rather low prices. A Portrait of Kitty Fisher, attributed to Sir Joshua Reynolds, brought $3,100; Portrait of the Earl of Dorset, early Spanish school, $3,200; Portrait of a Young Lady, Juan Carreno de Miranda, $2,350.

James Clarke Hook died in London Monday night. Born in London in 1819, he entered the Royal Academy as a student in 1836, and at once gave evidence of ability. As early as 1845 he was awarded the gold medal for an historical painting: The Finding of the Body of Harold. His early work was inspired chiefly by subjects from English history, but after an absence from England of eighteen months he turned his attention to scenes from Italian and French history and romance, with occasional reference to scriptural themes, and to Shakespeare's Italian subjects. The following pictures, all of which were exhibited at the Royal Academy, belong to this period: Pamphilus Relating His Story, 1844; Bassanio Commenting on the Caskets, 1847; The Chevalier Bayard Wounded at Brescia, 1849; A Dream of Venice, 1850. In this year, 1850, Mr. Hook was elected an associate of the Royal Academy, and ten years later he received the full honors. About 1855 he abandoned the romantic and historic vein and turned to pastoral and modern subjects. Of this later style—the middle period—the following are well known examples: The Birthplace of the Streamlet, The Market Place, 1855; A Pastoral, The Coast Boy Gathering Eggs, 1858. In the late fifties, Mr. Hook entered upon work by which he is best known, that is, as a painter of marine subjects. His work of this period won him wide popularity, due in a measure to the homely nature of his themes. His pictures of the sea are almost without exception anecdotal in character, and, indeed, the same comment may be made of all his work. Among the productions in his later style should be mentioned, Leaving Cornwall for the Whitby Fishing, 1861; The Trawlers, 1862; Salmon Trappers, Norway, 1871; The Samphire Gatherer, 1875; Little to Earn and Many to Keep, 1879; The Sea-weed Raker, 1889; Low Water at the Tidal Crossing, From the Shore to the Field, exhibited at the Royal Academy in 1897; and Water Cresses, 1899.

Three French artists have recently died. The first is the sculptor, Jean Barnabé Amy, who was born at Tarascon in 1839, and studied under Dumont and Bonnassieux. His first contribution to the Salon was his La Béatitude, 1869. In subsequent years he exhibited a number of portrait busts, and latterly he had been showing some grotesque and satirical "masques." Among his statues are L'Innocence, Le Remords, Thiers couronné par l'Histoire, and Le Tambour d'Arcole. Léon Richet, who died in Paris March 26, at the age of sixty-three, had studied under Diaz, Jules Lefebvre, and Boulanger; and he followed chiefly the style of Diaz. He exhibited his first landscape at the Salon of 1869; and he drew his later subjects largely from Normandy, Picardy, and the forests of Fontainebleau and Compiègne. Jules Monteigner, who died March 27 at Dompierre-sur-nièvre, where he was born in 1836, was well known as a painter of genre pictures and portraits.

Finance.

AN "APRIL CROP ESTIMATE."

When the stock market recovered from its low prices of the second and third weeks of March, and the panicky state of mind in Wall Street appeared to be at an end, the upward movement continued with little interruption for a fortnight. Such

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a recovery is usual, the reason being that a panicky decline is invariably overdone. At some point in the fall, a level of values is reached which attracts real investors; when they arrive, speculators for the decline, who have borrowed for delivery stocks which they must return, begin buying. Thus there is a partial retracing of the lost ground. It rarely continues long, because the real investor stops buying when prices have risen to a less inviting level, and because the speculators for the decline have soon "covered" their contracts for delivery. When this point is reached, a new decline, more or less prolonged, is likely to follow; and such a decline has gone on during most of the present month.

This series of movements, it will be seen, is more or less automatic. It is Wall Street's nature, however, always to demand some new explanation for a change in the course of prices, and on the present occasion the cause assigned most commonly on the Stock Exchange was reported damage to the crops. The Government's Agricultural Department had issued, on Wednesday of last week, an estimate of the early condition and promise of the wheat crop. That estimate was favorable; it showed a condition considerably better than that of a year ago, when a total wheat yield never but once exceeded was the outcome. Reduced to figures, the "condition" was better than that reported in April, by the Government, in any but five of the past twenty years. But the "condition estimate" for the "winter wheat crop" as a whole, which the Department gives out on April 10, is based on reports from the various producing points, and these are mailed to Washington on April 1. During the nine intervening days, weather in the wheat belt may be so unfavorable that the April first estimate may be misleading; and this was exactly the assertion current in the grain market this past week. Large grain houses, with speculative connections on the produce exchanges, send their own experts into the wheat district to find out actual conditions. Their dispatches, it was declared, showed great damage to the growing wheat since the Government figures were compiled. Dry weather in the Southwest, where winter-sown wheat, just emerging from the ground, needs abundant moisture, and ravages by destructive insects, were the causes alleged. While Stock Exchange prices were going down, wheat prices in the speculative markets went up, last week, two cents per bushel.

This "crop scare" was probably much exaggerated; it was in the interest of speculators, both in wheat and in stocks, to exaggerate it. But since more will be heard, between now and the autumn, of "crop reports," "condition percentages," and "estimated yield," it will be interesting to see just what these expressions actually mean. The Agricultural Department maintains a Statistical Bureau, whose officers receive the estimates from the field. Those estimates come from various sources. There are "State statistical agents," each of whom has a corps of subordinate experts; "township correspondents," who report on crop conditions in their own neighborhood; and a multitude of business men—merchants, bankers, millers, manufacturers of fertilizers, and farm machinery—whose location or trade connections give them opportunity for correct observation. Some of these agents are on salary; more do the work gratuitously. The system of a dozen years or so ago, when the Washington statistician's main reliance was the postmasters at agricultural towns, who gossiped with farmers and framed their own deductions accordingly, has long since been abandoned.

What frequently puzzles the reader of government crop estimates, however, is the "percentage." Last week, for instance, winter wheat was barely above the ground; the Department reported that "the crop's condition is 89.9 per cent." What did this figure mean? Indication of a perfect crop—that is, of a yield to the full capacity of the district reported on by a given correspondent—would be denoted by 100. This figure would not mean the same promised yield of bushels per acre in one town as in another; the best that a field of inferior richness would produce would run far below the best of the Red River Valley. Observation through a series of years will establish in each case what is a perfect crop, and each field correspondent reports, by his "condition percentage," how far short of that yield the growing crop seems likely to fall. Thus the Department has only the task of averaging the percentages, sometimes with more weight allowed to one group of experts than to another. The 89.9 percentage of April 10 means that the whole winter wheat belt promised to produce 10.1 per cent. less than the best it has shown itself able to do. With this information, the Produce Exchange expert whips out his pencil and figures out what the average yield per acre promises to be. In December the Department, having asked the correspondents how the acreage devoted to winter wheat compared with that of the previous year, worked out an increase of 1.1 in acreage. The ascertained acreage for the previous harvest was 31,312,000 acres. The market, adding 1.1 per cent. to that acreage, and multiplying the result by what the April report indicates, arrives at its "April forecast" of the winter wheat harvest of 1907.

What, it may be asked, does this forecast amount to, in the way of throwing light on the actual yield of the year? So far as the early wheat crop itself is concerned, the "condition estimate" has considerable value. Since the crop is not absolutely out of danger until the latter part of June, there is of course opportunity for serious impairment through bad weather or insect pests. There are instances in which the April condition estimate has been cut down 10 or 15 per cent. in the monthly estimate for July. Nothing would seem more natural than such a result, in the vicissitudes of the American climate. Yet the April percentage has, on the whole, been singularly well maintained. Only in three out of the twenty-four past years has the condition estimate been reduced, between April and July, as much as 10 per cent.; in four years, of the period, the July figure was higher than April's.

But the forecast of "total indicated yield," deduced by the market from the April condition estimate, is worth little. The estimate of acreage planted, which is used necessarily in such calculations, is that compiled by the Government at the opening of December. It takes no account of "winter-killed" wheat, in regions where "snow-covering" has been inadequate, or where floods and frost have destroyed the tender plant. Not until the monthly crop report of May is this essential item corrected. Last year, the May report found that on 1,718,000 acres, or 6 per cent. of the December-planted area, the wheat had been destroyed. In 1905, the loss was 4⅝ per cent., or 1,432,000 acres; in 1904—when January and February in the Southwest were marked by unusually destructive weather—15⅝ per cent., or 4,932,000 acres, were reported as abandoned between December 1 and May.

Clearly this acreage reduction, of which the precise results are not yet known, must cut down materially any April estimate of expected yield. Furthermore, though the early crop makes up the greater part of this country's wheat harvest, the so-called spring wheat, of whose condition no estimate appears until June, and whose harvest falls in August and September, contributes some 40 per cent. to the total yield. These elements of doubt make it plain enough why the speculators in the grain exchanges use the present interval to convince their market that supplies will be short this coming autumn, and prices higher; while speculators in stocks insist that with crop yields below expectations, farmers will have less grain to sell, railways less to carry, and prosperity, therefore, a less favorable basis. But the read-

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er must now perceive that such prophecies are as premature as are the expert forecasts of total yield, based on an "April percentage."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Before Port Arthur in a Destroyer. Translated by R. Grant. Dutton. $3 net.
Bussell, F. W. Christian Theology and Social Progress. Dutton. $3.50 net.
Collier, Nick Sherlock. Frenological Finance. Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co.
Cooke, R. J. The Incarnation and Recent Criticism. Eaton & Mains. $1.50 net.
Craddock, Charles Egbert. The Windfall. Duffield & Co. $1.50.
Dampier, William. Dampier's Voyages. 2 vols. Dutton. $7.50 net.
Druce, G. Claridge. The Dillenian Herbaria. Henry Frowde. $4.15.
Duncan, Norman. The Cruise of the Shining Light. Harpers. $1.50.
English Poetry. Selected by John Matthews Manley. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.70.
Farnell, Lewis Richard. The Cults of the Greek. Vols. III., IV. Henry Frowde.
Frost, Margaret A. Sunny. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press. 75 cents.
Hepner, Adolf. Der Schutz der Deutschen in Frankreich, 1870-1871. Stuttgart.
Hyperides. Orationes et Fragmenta. Edited by F. G. Kenyon. Henry Frowde.
McCrackan, W. D. The Italian Lakes. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Maclaren, Ian. Graham of Claverhouse. Authors and Newspapers Association.
Meany, Edmond S. Vancouver's Discovery of Puget Sound. $2.50 net.
Morrison, Arthur. The Chronicles of Martin Hewitt. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Ober, Frederick A. Ferdinand Magellan. Harpers. $1 net.
Omond, T. S. English Metrists in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries. Henry Frowde.
Oxford English Dictionary. Vol. VII.: Piper-Polygenistic. Henry Frowde.
Paterson, W. Romaine. The Nemesis of Nations. Dutton. $3 net.
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